DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 310 907 RC 017 198

TITLE	Management Strategies for Administrators in Small Schools. Small Schools Network Information Exchange, Number 7.
INSTITUTION	Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands, Andover, MA.
SPONS AGENCY	Department of Education, Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	May 89
CONTRACT	400-86-0005
NOTE	127p.; Contains some light or broken type.
AVAILABLE FROM	The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands, 290 South Main St., Andover, MA 01810 (order no. 9062-09, $17.50 postpaid).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - General (020) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Administrator Role; Elementary Secondary Education; Management Teams; Participative Decision Making; *Principals; Resource Materials; Rural Schools; *School Administration; *Small Schools; *Superintendents; Supervisory Methods
IDENTIFIERS	*Management Practices

ABSTRACT

This information packet contains journal articles, book chapters, conference papers, and ERIC clearinghouse publications on small schools management strategies for superintendents and principals. Topics cover (1) elements of formal team management; (2) role of the administrator in creating the environment necessary for effective schools; (3) benefits and problems of the combined superintendent-principal position; (4) improving public relations in the rural school district; (5) problems and solutions related to curriculum development in small and rural schools; (6) computer applications in school administration; (7) behaviors and activities of secondary school principals that promote or inhibit school effectiveness; (8) a training program to develop principals' problem-solving abilities; (9) approaches to school-based management; (10) assessment and improvement of school climate; (11) a plan for principal supervision of teachers' skills and behaviors; (12) strategies for preserving electives; and (13) case study of one rural principal's effective discipline program. The packet also contains a list of 12 additional resources for management strategies, ERIC clearinghouse publications brochures and digests, and a regional laboratory report on shared leadership within the school. (SV)

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SMALL SCHOOLS NETWORK
INFORMATION EXCHANGE

Number 7

SPRING 1989

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MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES for ADMINISTRATORS in SMALL SCHOOLS

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

RC017198

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MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES
FOR
SUPERINTENDENTS

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

Small Schools Network
83 Boston Post Road
Sudbury, MA 01776
May 1989

Dear Small School Leader:

Management Strategies for Administrators in Small Schools is the theme for Information Exchange Packet Number 7, the second of two such packets developed for Small Schools Network member districts during the 1988-89 school year.

As always, the topic of this packet was determined by members of the Small Schools Network. We are especially pleased that three SSN district administrators have chosen to share some of their most effective management strategies with other Network members. Those methods are listed in a flyer at the front of this packet.

In compiling Information Exchange Packet Number 7, we found relatively little information geared specifically to the needs of small schools administrators. **Management Strategies for Administrators in Small Schools** contains what we feel are several of the most timely and insightful of the available resources. We have also included a listing of additional books, reports, and articles you may want to explore as you plan or re-evaluate your own needs. For convenience, the packet is divided into two sections: the first section contains articles that deal with management strategies for superintendents; the second contains management strategies for principals.

Please use the enclosed evaluation card to let us know how useful you have found this information. Further, we urge you to share the contents of this packet in three ways: via the routing lists provided in the Table of Contents; by making photocopies for your individual schools; or by ordering additional copies at a cost of $15.00, plus $2.50 postage and handling (cite order number 9062-09).

We encourage you to continue to provide us with suggestions and ideas for future packets by calling or writing us at the Small Schools Network, 83 Boston Post Road, Sudbury, MA 01776, (508)443-7991. SSN is only as effective as you, its members.

Best Regards,

John R. Sullivan, Jr.
Program Director

Linda L. Galton
Associate Program Director

Serving New England, New York, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands

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ARTICLES INCLUDED IN INFORMATION EXCHANGE NUMBER 7:

PART 1: SUPERINTENDENTS

American Association of School Administrators. Creative Ideas For Small Schools. Arlington, VA: 1981.
Route to: _______________ _______________ _______________

Cooper, Lloyd and Kathleen Forrer. "Guidelines for Meeting Computer Needs in Small Districts." The Rural Educator (Winter, 1986-87): 13-15.
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Engelking, Jeri. "The Challenge of Leadership: High Expectations." The Rural Educator (Fall 1988): 5-8
Route to: _______________ _______________ _______________

Hadderman, Margaret. "Team Management." Andover, MA: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, ERIC Digest Online, July, 1987.
Route to: _______________ _______________ _______________

Littrell, J. Harvey. "Rural School Leadership for Curriculum Development." Ann Arbor, MI: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services.
Route to: _______________ _______________ _______________

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Wade, Larry D. "Ideas for a Total Public Relations Program in a Rural School District." Rural Education: A Hope For the Future. Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Rural and Small Schools Conference. Manhattan, KS: Center for Rural Education and Small Schools, Kansas State University (October 1987).
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

Whitworth, Jerry. "The Microcomputer in the Small School District." Ann Arbor, MI: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services.
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Woll, Dan. "Do Two Hats Spell Double Trouble?" The School Administrator (December 1988): 40-41.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

PART 2: PRINCIPALS

Gottfredson, Gary D. and John H. Hollifield. "How to Diagnose School Climate: Pinpointing Problems, Planning Change." NASSP Bulletin (March 1988): 63-70.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

Mojkowski, Charles and Douglas Fleming. School Site Management: Concepts and Approaches. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory, May 1988.
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ARTICLES (Continued)

National Association of Secondary School Principals. *The Practitioner: A Newsletter for the On-Line Administrator* (September 1988).
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

Neal, Richard G. "School-based Management Lets Principals Slice the Budget Pie." *The Executive Educator* (January 1989): 16-19.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

Powell, Neal J. "A Plan for Principals: School Supervision That Works." NASSP *Bulletin* (March 1988): 42-49.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

Russell, James S. and Jo Ann Mazzarella, Thomas White, Steven Maurer. "Linking the Behaviors and Activities of Secondary School Principals to School Effectiveness: A Focus on Effective and Ineffective Behaviors." Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, June 1985.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

Snyder, Karolyn J. and Mary Giella. "Developing Principals' Problem-Solving Capacities." *Educational Leadership* (September 1987): 38-41.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

ARTICLES (Continued)

Stanard, Marilynn. "Rural Principal: A Case Study of an Effective Disciplinarian." The Rural Educator (Fall 1986): 16-21.
Route to: ______________ ______________ ______________

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MINI-BIBLIOGRAPHIES, COMPUCOPIES, AND COST AND NO-COST ITEMS

A listing of informational items included in the front section of Information Exchange Packet Number 7:

- Selected Management Strategies, Small Schools Network Members;

- Information regarding the newly relocated ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools and a list of locations in the Northeast and Islands that house complete ERIC collections;

- ERIC-CRESS DIGEST, "Economic Support for Education in Rural School Districts," December 1988.

- From the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management (ERIC-CEM) located in Eugene, Oregon: 1) an eight-page publications brochure on Clearinghouse products, 2) a flyer for ordering **School Leadership: Handbook for Excellence;**

MINI-BIBLIOGRAPHIES (continued)

- From the Oregon School Study Council, University of Oregon, Eugene, ordering information for: 1) **Instructional Leadership: Contexts and Challenges**, and 2) **Long-Range Planning: School Districts Prepare for the Future;**

- The March, 1989, issue of **The Regional Lab Reports** newsletter, on the topic of Shared Leadership.

*** Additional copies of Information Exchange Packet Number 7 are available at a cost of $15.00 plus $2.50 postage and handling from The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810, (508)470-0098. Please cite order number 9062-09. ***

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES OF VALUE

The list below includes other articles, reports, books, and resources that are valuable sources of information for planning effective management strategies. Addresses and costs are included when available.

• • • BOOKS/REPORTS • • •

A View from the Inside: School Building Leadership and Management, Report of the Select Seminar on School Building Leadership and Management Leadership in Educational Administration Development Center. Capital Area School Development Association. SUNY - Albany, Albany, NY: 1988. Reprints available from The Regional Laboratory, No. 9044-99, $4.00.

Broady, Knute O. and Lois P. Administration of Small Twelve-Grade Schools. Lincoln, NE: Nebraska University, 1974, ED093544, available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service, Computer Microfilm Corporation, 3900 Wheeler Avenue, Alexandria, VA 22304-6409.

Cox, Pat L., Lindsay French, and Susan Loucks-Horsley. Getting the Principal Off the Hotseat: Configuring Leadership and Support For School Improvement, July 1987. Available from The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810. Cost: $7.50 plus $2.50 postage and handling. No. 9001-99.

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Additional Resources (continued)

Grant, Gerald. *The World We Created at Hamilton High*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA: 1988.

Reck, Carleen. *The Small Catholic Elementary School: Advantages and Opportunities*. Washington, D.C.: National Catholic Educational Association, 1988. RC016914 (use this number to locate the ED number through ERIC-CRESS in Charleston, WV, 800/624-9120).

Weick, Karl. *The Social Psychology of Organizing*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1979.

White, P.A. *Resource Materials on School-Based Management*. New Brunswick, NJ: Center for Policy Research in Education, 1988.

• • • ARTICLES • • •

Bacharach, S.B. and S.C. Conely. "Education Reform: A Managerial Agenda." *Phi Delta Kappan* 67(9): 641-645.

Roberts, N.C. "Organizational Power Styles: Collective and Competitive Power Under Varying Organizational Conditions." *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* (22):443-458.

SELECTED MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Small Schools Network Members

In November 1988, we invited SSN members to tell us about any particular strategies, methods, activities, or procedures that have proven effective for them and that could be shared with the entire membership. The following is a brief overview of strategies that have worked well for three member superintendents, all from very different educational environments. Each of these individuals will be pleased to elaborate on their strategies should you desire further details.

* * * * *

SCHOOL DISTRICT: New Shoreham Enrollment: 105
ADDRESS: Block Island School
Box 249, High Street
Block Island, RI 02807
TELEPHONE: (401)466-2251

SUPERINTENDENT: Esther L. Campbell

Strategy: Involving teachers in decision making. Propositions are presented at teachers' meetings for discussion and general consensus.

Outcome: Input from all sides of the question with opportunity for interaction and feedback.

Strategy: Two-way faculty-staff memos to ascertain consensus for policy changes.

Outcome: Cooperative planning and less reluctance to change.

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Bourne Public Schools Enrollment: 2,600
ADDRESS: 36 Sandwich Road
Bourne, MA 02532
TELEPHONE: (508)759-5112

SUPERINTENDENT: Dr. John E. O'Brien

Strategy: Curriculum Council

Outcome: Creates an overall governing board which assures that curriculum decisions meet standards and also insures curriculum coordination across the district.

Strategy: Budget Consensus Workshops

Outcome: Guarantees that administrators at all levels understand and support system-wide priorities and minimizes splintering.

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Concord Enrollment: 209
ADDRESS: Rumford School
Thorndike Street
Concord, NH 03301
TELEPHONE: (603)225-0836

SUPERINTENDENT: Philip Paskowitz

Strategy: Multi-grade classes.

Outcome: This is not a unique strategy, but it is the best way to do the job. In some ways, it is survival, but multi-grade classes also provide channels for cross-age tutoring and cooperative learning.

Our thanks to the members who shared their strategies. Do you have a particularly effective management technique or program that others might find useful? If so, please share it with us. SSN will compile additional strategies and include them with an upcoming mailout. Write to: Small Schools Network, The Regional Laboratory, 83 Boston Post Road, Sudbury, MA 01776.

TITLE: TEAM MANAGEMENT

AUTHOR: Margaret Hadderman

SOURCE: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management

YEAR: 1987

ABSTRACT: Discusses team management as a response to increased complexity of issues and school community pressures to redistribute power, broaden participation, and improve efficiency.

KEYWORDS: Administrators, Teacher Participation, Management Teams, Cooperation, Participative Decision-Making, Board Administrator Relationship, Elementary Secondary Education

TEXT: Far from being a passing fad, the management team -- a formal arrangement enabling the superintendent to consult with other personnel on decisions -- has become a permanent feature of American education. The myth of the school leader as a "solitary, benevolent autocrat" is misguided, says Patricia Wilhelm (1984), as principals have always belonged to district management groups and school communities. Similarly, superintendents have come to rely on other administrators' expertise to resolve the increasingly complex problems facing the schools.

Bryce Grindle (1982) notes that the team approach seems "compatible with the best concepts of management democracy, and open social systems." Moreover, the concept has proved responsive to pressure from teachers and parents to redistribute power, broaden participation in the decision-making process, and improve administrative efficiency.

WHAT IS TEAM MANAGEMENT?

A management team might best be described as "a group whose role is formalized and legitimized and whose purpose is problem solving and/or decision making" (Duvall and Erickson 1981). The school management team usually includes a cross-section of experienced central office and building-level administrators committed to a "structured decision-making process endorsed by the school board and the superintendent" (Lindelow and Bentley forthcoming). Team management offers organizations an opportunity to improve the quality of decisions made and fosters consensus where none was thought possible.

WHAT ARE THE ELEMENTS OF TEAM MANAGEMENT?

To become more than a new label for traditional hierarchy, team management requires sound leadership from the superintendent, good working agreement between the board and its administration, and an organizational model suitable for the district. Above all, team management demands strong commitment to building trust among all participants.

Changes in the district's power structure are largely informal. Success depends on such intangible factors as team members' willingness to be open, trustworthy, and nonjudgmental and the board's and the superintendent's eagerness to share power while retaining final responsibility for team decisions (Anderson 1988).

WHAT ARE SOME PROBLEMS WITH PARTICIPATORY DECISION-MAKING?

For all its positive effects on decision quality and staff morale, participative decision-making can lead to frustration if not enough information-sharing occurs within the group (Wood 1984). Other factors hindering group effectiveness are tendencies to avoid conflict-producing discussion, differences between problem-solving actions and beliefs, and misconceptions concerning levels of participation.

To avoid these problems, school districts must clearly communicate the approaches and processes that will be followed, use participatory decision-making at all hierarchical levels, and offer appropriate training for group members used to more autocratic approaches. Team members must also learn how to handle dissent, allow sufficient time to make group decision, and develop an effective self-evaluation process.

WHAT ARE SOME GOOD EXAMPLES OF TEAM MANAGEMENT?

Several districts that John Lindelow and Scott Bentley describe have developed successful management teams over the past decade. The Yakima (Washington) School District's team "resembles a legislative body, with many small groups doing most of the work." Once a group recommends an action, the entire 72-member team decides the issue by consensus. The team also prepares salary schedules and uses position papers to facilitate the policy-making process. Yakima's management team is best characterized by its flexibility, responsiveness, and clearly delineated communication channels.

The Rio Linda (California) Elementary School District's 40-member team, while smaller, resembles Yakima's configuration, with small group doing most of the work and making recommendations to the larger team. Unlike Yakima, the Rio Linda team "works toward a solution" until reaching a general agreement (rather than consensus), say Lindelow and Bentley. The keys to Rio Linda's success are well-established communication patterns and solid support from the school board.

Attleboro (Massachusetts) School Department also has an interlocking team structure, but depends more on informal, open discussion that on formalized communication processes. During its formative stage, the team relied heavily on consultants, who held seminars on group dynamics and related team-building strategies. Attleboro's team has worked together so harmoniously that no formal administration-board agreement has been needed.

For additional profiles of successful school management teams, see Anderson (1988).

HOW MIGHT TEAM MANAGEMENT BE FURTHER EXPANDED IN SCHOOL SETTINGS?

School districts can broaden the management team by tapping the talents and creative energies of two underrepresented sectors -- women and minorities -- and by involving teachers in school-based teams. Despite women administrators' special collaborative decision-making and community-building skills school management teams are overwhelmingly dominated by (white) males.

Ethnic minorities are especially in need of encouragement. At a time when schools are gearing up to serve increasing numbers of black, Hispanic, and poor students, the number of minority teachers and administrators is actually shrinking.

The team approach also can be extended to the faculty. Principals can adopt instructional leadership teams that pool the expertise of administrators, department heads, and teachers. Using the team approach, "critical functions are assigned to those most capable of performing them rather than being centralized in the principal's office" (Glatthorn and Newberg 1984).

Most recently the "second wave" of educational reform calls for structuring the schools and reshaping teachers' roles to allow greater autonomy, status, and decision-making responsibility (Lieberman 1988). In South Bend, Indiana, for example, retiring district-level content specialists are being replaced by teacher specialist. Teacher collaboration is helping to develop leadership potential and may help stem the exodus of experienced teachers from the profession.

Expanding the school leadership team involves more than creating a few new roles or providing extra help for the principal. The idea is to reorganize school and create a collaborative work mode to replace teacher isolation and break down management/labor barriers (Lieberman 1988). At its best, the management team approach reshapes the administrator's role so that power and authority may be shared with other staff in a nonthreatening way that builds organizational commitment and enhances the entire educational process.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

Anderson, Mark E. THE MANAGEMENT TEAM: PATTERNS FOR SUCCESS. Eugene: Oregon School Study Council, February 1988. OSSC bulletin series. 27 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

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Grindle, Bryce W. "Administrative Team Management: Four Essential Components." CLEARING HOUSE 56, 1 (1982): 22-33.

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Wilhelm, Patricia M. "The Administrative Team, a Simple Concept to Facilitate Problem Solving." NASSP BULLETIN 68, 468 (1984): 26-31.

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Management and the Smaller District

No matter how personal the organization of a small school district may be, or how much in control of the situation administrators hope to be, management has become a complex, burdensome thing, often weighed down by requirements imposed from beyond the school system's view. The demands and mandates perhaps are legitimate, but as in so many other areas, they are constucted for larger school systems which sometimes have the personnel and expertise to absorb the paperwork.

Small school district administrators complain, legitimately, that federal and state mandates ignore all the hats already hanging in the administrator's office. A superintendent, for example, may also be director of all federal programs, transportation head, coach, curriculum supervisor, public relations expert and lawyer. And he may also be left with emptying the ashtrays when the meetings are over.

"Let's measure the child's potential and achievement when he or she comes to school, measure it periodically through school, report this in a meaningful way to the parents and to the funding agencies, and forget about all the other junk reporting," commented one frustrated superintendent from Missouri.

Ironically, the paperwork burden, say many superintendents, keeps them from having the time to apply for funding from state and federal programs.

There are no easy solutions. Obviously, convincing policy-makers to take small school limitations into consideration when they enact mandates and regulations is a priority item for administrators working together to influence policy. Meanwhile, small school administrators are building on their tradition of team work, shaping it into the more sophisticated framework of contemporary school management. "I recommend an active administrative team even if there is only one other person involved," says an Illinois superintendent.

CHAPTER

Management and the Smaller District

Managing With A Team

Even a small school system can have a full-blown management team, believes James Calkins, superintendent at **Martinsville (Va.) city schools.** For the past five years, the 3,400-student school system, with nine schools, has had a well-organized management team:

- All administrators meet at least once a month during the school year to consider all areas of responsibility. The meeting is timed to precede the monthly meeting of the school board. The administrators preview the agenda for the school board and are expected to attend the school board meeting, participating as necessary.
- The administrative team participates in all decisions made at the central office level.
- The superintendent resolves any decisions not clearly a consensus of the team.
- Before the opening of school each year, the team spends a full week reviewing and suggesting revisions to current policy and regulations. Objectives for the schools and special areas of responsibility are set at this time.

In the **Brunswick County Schools at Lawrenceville, Va.,** the superintendent's advisory council meets once a month to discuss school business. The 15-member team consists of Superintendent J. Grady Martin, the assistant superintendent, central staff and school principals. Each member of the team submits a management report and visitation report every month (for eight months). These are distributed to each member of the team to keep them informed. There are additional meetings of the team before school opens and at the close of the school year, to make plans, then evaluate progress.

Setting Goals and Evaluating Them

Superintendent Richard Bamberger of the **Schodack Central School District, Castleton-on-Hudson, N.Y.,** has gradually developed a total school evaluation system. The first step was to pu in place an evaluation of the superintendent by the school board, a process which took several months of work between Bamberger and board members. It has worked successfully now for three years, he says. Next, he developed a process of evaluation of the administrators, again, working with those involved. At the same time, the school board implemented a self-evaluation system.

The most difficult and far-reaching evaluation system was that for the teaching staff, Bamberger says. The construction of the Teacher Development Process involved eight full days of intensive debate, writing, rewriting, and revision by the administrative staff, spread out over a full year. It was used for the first time in the 1980-81 school year. The final step in the evaluation system will be to work with the civil service department heads to develop a process covering civil service employees, he says.

Because of the small size of the school district (1,200 students and 98 staff), Barry Farnham, superintendent at **Briarcliff Manor, N.Y.,** ha devised a teacher evaluation system with a tea approach. He and the principal comprise the team. At the beginning of the school year, principals develop a target list of teachers to be evaluated during the first semester—those in their first year of employment, those eligible for appointment to tenure the following year and those eligible for a career increment in the following year. The principals meet with the teacher ahead of time to discuss what the objectives of the teachers' lessons are to be, then share this lesson plan with the superintendent. Both then observe the teacher's classroom lesson and confer immediately afterwards, sharing their written observations. As soon as possible, the principal and superintendent meet with the teacher to discuss their observations, including commendations and recommendations for improvement, if any. The principal then writes an official report for the teacher's record, as well as the final evaluation at the end of the school year.

"When I make recommendations to the school board on reappointments, tenure and career increments," says Farnham, "I have a first-hand impression of the job the teacher has done and can make the recommendation with the utmost confidence."

Personal goals for all employees is the overall goal for Rod Wilbeck, superintendent at **Maurice-Orange City Community Schools, Orange City, Iowa.** Steps in the plan include initial evaluation, cooperative goal-setting between an employee and his or her supervisor, written plans for carrying out the goals and an evaluation of how well they have been carried out. The board and superintendent set district-wide goals based on feedback from employees and "constituents." "Our outstanding employees," Wilbeck has noticed, "generally have goals that are directed toward refining their current skills. Employees with specific problems are encouraged, and occasionally forced, to deal with them."

Working With the School Board

Before each regular monthly meeting, the **Cozad City (Neb.)** school board has an in-service session. During this 30-45-minute period, members of the staff present an overview of some aspect of the curriculum or school activity. This has been going on for 10 years, and Superintendent Rodney Koch says it looks like it will continue because "the school board says it gives the members important to think about besides money problems."

Another form of "in-service" training of board members takes place in the **Cheyenne Public Schools, Cheyenne, Okla.** Superintendent Michael Dwyer invites personnel from the state department of education to meet with the school board, overseeing a district of 394 students, "to enlighten them on what makes a good school system besides sports."

In order to keep friction or protracted discussions at a minimum, the school board for the **Portage Township schools, Houghton, Mich.,** lists items for possible action on its agenda as "discussion items" the first time around. It will not appear as an action item until the second month. This way, the school board sidesteps what might be hasty and later regretted actions.

Updates In Between

Most school boards in small districts meet only once a month on a regular basis. There often is a communications gap during the interim," says William Blydenburgh, superintendent at **Waterville Central School District, Waterville, N.Y.** To fill the gap, he and the administrative staff prepare a weekly update on key accomplishments, problems, and other circumstances which should be of concern to the board. "This has done a great deal toward mitigating a number of situations that could have become big problems," he says.

Budgeting/Purchasing

For three years the **Arcadia public school system, Arcadia, Wisc.,** has been moving toward constructing a budget from the "grassroots." Too often, says Superintendent Denis Kirkman, superintendents construct a budget "Mount Olympus" style, "gathering what information is available, and compensating for any possible errors by padding." In Arcadia, the budget process now begins with the teacher who decides on a classroom budget for the coming year, then discusses it with the department head. The department budget goes to the school building principal.

who then negotiates with department heads over a total building budget. There is a refining process at each level, says Kirkman, so that when the budget reaches the superintendent "it is objective and readily understood by all levels of management." The same process, he points out, must be used when the budget has to be cut. All levels must be advised of the cuts that are needed and involved in the cutting. A side benefit of this process, says Kirkman, is that "teachers become informed about the problems school boards have in meeting the needs of the school program."

In order to get accurate projections on the costs of supplies and equipment for budget-making purposes, the **Lake Mills School District, Lake Mills, Wisc.,** is now doing budget estimates, and requisitioning, on computer data cards. The cards are color-coded by building, giving each teacher a reference number and account coding numbers. The computer sorts out orders by account number, listing the dollar amount estimated for the items. "With each item listed and all items for our entire district on the printout, we have accurate totals and know exactly where we are and how much needs to be cut to meet budget restrictions," says District Administrator Robert Ames.

Sharing The Paperwork

There are many variations on the paperwork theme in small schools. Being a member of the administrative team means that you share in the paperwork. "It is impossible for one person to chair all the required and necessary committees or head all the mandated programs," says William Green III, superintendent at **La Feria, Texas.** He transfers many of these activities to building principals and interested teachers. "I still serve as a committee member," he says, "but I have to do this because of our small staff."

In the **Demopolis city system, Demopolis, Ala.,** Superintendent Wes Hill assigns principals district-wide jobs. For example, one handles school insurance, another monitors textbook selections and orders. The same pattern is followed for the administrative team in the **Mundelein, Ill., Elementary District 75.** Superintendent Richard Lanaghan reports that each building principal (there are four) assumes a major central office responsibility, such as director of curriculum, business manager, director of buildings and grounds and director of food services. "We feel that this helps us to hold administrative costs down while, at the same time, developing a district-level focus on the part of building principals," Lanaghan says.

The **Jamestown, R.I.,** school, a K-12 suburban school for 700 pupils, gives teachers a chance at sharing the load. Superintendent Alfred LaMarche uses five classroom teachers as "coordinators" for federal projects, such as Title I and Title IX. "They handle all the important details, keep me informed and work with me on matters requiring school committee approval, all without extra pay," he says.

HAVE YOU THOUGHT ABOUT . . . ?

* Using consultants? Gerald Edwards, district administrator of the **Marion, Wisc., schools,** says the use of good consultants has more than paid for itself. Many of the consultants have been drawn from the community, an expansion of the administrative team concept, he says. They have advised the school system on insurance, law and heating/energy. Norman Guith, superintendent at the **Central School District, Rancho Cucamonga, Calif.,** goes so far as to advise that small districts include a sizeable amount of money in their budgets for outside consultants. He has used them for maintenance contracting, construction, and state and federal project writing.

* Self-study and long-range planning? Superintendent Douglas Christensen of the **Colby Public Schools, USD #315, Colby, Kan.,** says his district uses a model that requires a seven-year cycle of study of various aspects of the district. Each year several areas are singled out for intensive study, resulting in recommendations to the school board. The seven-year accumulation of evaluation and actions "represent the requirements necessary to meet state as well as regional requirements," Christensen says.

* Appointing a full-time district activities director? Most small districts, points out Larry Brewer, superintendent of the 2,300-student system at **Snowflake, Ariz.,** only have a part-time athletic director. Many details get left undone or are done at the last minute, as a consequence. His district uses a full-time activities director to cover all student activities, including transportation. "We have found that having a person responsible for activities and transportation is a natural, and is a fulltime job," he says.

* Putting it all in a handbook? Roger Moore, administrator of the **Princeton, Wisc., School District,** has made himself a handbook detailing each job that must be done. There is a sheet of information, such as beginning date and ending date, people involved and the forms used, for each administrative responsibility.

* Concentrating in-service training on building principals and the central administration? Superintendent Alden Larson of the **Edgemont school district** a suburban district in **Scarsdale, N.Y.,** scheduled a total of 18 workshops for administrators with a social worker and a local psychiatrist, focusing on the improvement of interpersonal relationships.

* Getting to know each other? In the **Brewster Central School District, Brewster, N.Y.,** the district administrators (12 in all) invite spouses and children to an annual picnic and overnight workshop. This has contributed significantly "to our understanding of each other," says Superintendent James Monk.

* Contracting out for services? Robert Aiken, superintendent at **New Hope-Solebury School District, New Hope, Pa.,** says that contracts for busing, cafeteria and custodial services have relieved administrators for educational leadership.

* Retreating with administrators? Administrators, students, key staff members and the school board have an annual winter "retreat" in the **St. Francis school district #6, St. Francis, Wisc.** Superintendent William Steinert says the emphasis is on "grassroots" discussions of school problems and alternatives. Recommendations are reported to the administrative council, school board and student council with "action plans." The retreat includes "boundary breaking" exercises, an annual mid-winter football game and skits around the fireplace. The students are now asking for a spring retreat to plan for the fall term, Steinert reports, and for him, "the experience is like a warm bath."

* Importing administrative help? With only one school in the district, Superintendent Joseph Matula of the **Lindop School, Broadview, Ill.,** says there was a rationale for not having both a superintendent and a principal. The problem was solved by hiring an administrative intern through Loyola University. The intern, a full-time doctoral student, worked in the district four days a week and spent one day a week in university classes. The cost to the school district, Matula says, was only $12,800.

* Rotating building inspections? In the **Ft. Knox Independent Schools, Ft. Knox, Ky.,** one building is inspected each month by two teams, one for instruction and one for maintenance. The instruction team is composed of teachers, principals, central office staff, parents and board members. They spend one day reviewing the instructional program and visiting classes. A report is submitted to the building staff. The maintenance team, consisting of the assistant superintendent for business, superintendent, a board member and parents, inspects the condition, safety and cleanliness of the building. It, too, submits a written report.

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Vol. 10, No. 1, Fall 1988.

THE CHALLENGE OF LEADERSHIP: HIGH EXPECTATIONS

Jeri L. Engelking

Introduction

Many schools that today are considered effective and have been cited for their high academic achievement were in fact once mediocre. They expected little of their students and spent much time making excuses for their lack of achievement. Today, these schools push all students to their highest potential and the students know they are being pushed. To quote a high school student in Hialeah, Florida, from such a school, "Teachers are on you all the time to do better. Even when you think you are working hard, they expect you to keep improving. They keep adjusting the goals upward" (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1986).

Research on effective schools reports that the principals of these schools have several characteristics in common (Strothers, 1983). They are:

1) They emphasize student achievement as the primary outcome of the school;
2) They place a strong emphasis on student achievement in basic skills;
3) They closely monitor, evaluate, and modify student programs and are in touch with what is going on in their school;
4) They communicate organizational goals clearly to all those concerned—students, parents, and teachers;
5) They emphasize that the acquisition of basic skills is the central instructional goal of the school; and
6) They establish high standards of performance and hold high expectations for students and teachers alike.

Research on effective schools conducted by National Association of Elementary School Principals further indicates that the principal, as the key figure in these schools, exhibits strong leadership in the area of high expectations. That is, they inspire those around them to become involved in the mission of the school through their attitudes and conduct, and they convey a definite concern of high expectations for students, teachers and other members of the staff to excel. These expectations cover many areas from expecting high academic performance and setting the school climate for achievement of this goal, to expecting social maturity, creativity, and fostering independent thinking.

One approach to conveying these high standards and expectations is through a behavioral three-part approach consisting of the following three premises:

(1) Good people make good schools,
(2) You get what you teach for, and
(3) It has to be positive.

Good People Make Good Schools

As a principal, you need to be the leader and even the cheerleader in stressing this idea. Research indicates that principals of effective schools not only have high expectations of themselves and their people, but they get out of their offices and convey this message to all those involved in the schools.

This type of "getting out of the office" has been called management by walking around. Thomas Peters, co-author of both *In Search of Excellence* (1982) with Robert Waterman and *A Passion for Excellence* (1985) with Nancy Austin, in their research on management of America's best-run companies, called it Management by

Jeri L. Engelking

Wandering Around. Others have called it kind of like being housedust--you are in essence everywhere. In any case, it is the idea of being out there in the halls and classrooms, being visible, believing in the importance of details, being supportive of your people and students, believing that your people are the best, and believing in performance and accountability.

You set high standards for yourself because you communicate your expectations of others by your own words and actions. This is important, because students and others imitate and emulate the behaviors they observe. Administrators and teachers must, therefore, practice what they preach. If you set deadlines for students, you should be sure to meet your own self-imposed deadlines. If you want respect you should treat others with respect. In other words, model that which you want and expect from others. If you desire people to dress appropriately, demand it of yourself and stress the importance of looking professional. For students, put up mirrors on doors or in the halls so they can see themselves as others do.

Over and over, research has demonstrated that teachers and students tend to live up to what is expected of them. For this reason, you need to set high standards for yourself, and remember that good people make good schools, not good schools make good people.

You Get What You Teach For

Jere Brophy (1980), from the Institute of Research on Teaching, noted that teachers' expectations for themselves play a large part in determining their expectations for students; and in turn, that students' expectations for themselves are a direct reflection of the expectations that others have for them.

Research on effective schools, conducted by Jere Brophy (1980), tells us that successful teachers, meaning those whose students perform well, have consistently high expectations for *all* their students. These teachers also set higher goals, provide more focus, demand student accountability for work, revise student goals as needed, and offer equal attention and feedback to each individual student.

Research compiled by the Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory (1983) in Colorado, tells us that teachers are able to accomplish this and communicate their expectations to students by doing the following in their classrooms:

—Making a conscious effort to call on all students.

—Making sure students get the help they need, even those who may not ask for it.

—Digging deeper for more in-depth answers or explanations by rephrasing questions, or by giving clues or more information that lead to the answer.

—Allowing adequate response time for each student, generally upwards of 5-10 seconds.

—Giving low achievers opportunity to practice their thinking skills on higher-level questions.

—Offering positive reactions to student answers, either affirmative or corrective.

—Making the use of praise specific and sincere to a job well done, not just handing out praise for every answer or token praise for an attempt.

—Looking at students when they are speaking, and carefully listening to what they say.

—Being sensitive to the emotional needs of all students.

—Showing respect for students by modeling the courtesy they expect in return.

—Showing an interest in the lives and experiences of all students.

These are just some of the characteristics found in effective schools, but they all point toward a no-nonsense, time-on-task approach to being effective. To accomplish this, you emphasize what you believe is important and you follow through with it. For example, if your school believes that reading is the most important subject that you teach, then you not only teach reading, but you stress the teaching of reading in all other areas of the curriculum. You contact parents and tell them what you are going to expect of their children and the kinds of work they will be doing, both at school and at home, in terms of reading, and how it should improve. And, you follow up with remediation where necessary.

In terms of homework and high expectations, research reported by John Rahe (1987) shows that effective schools expect, in fact demand, more homework, and that homework does in fact increase learning by up to 50% if it is used properly. That is, if the homework is 1) a relative extension of what you do in the classroom, and 2) if the homework is checked and feedback given directly to the student as soon as possible.

Remember, students as well as teachers will perform as you expect them to, and you get what you teach for.

It Has To Be Positive

The third premise does not mean that school must always be fun and that we hold a three-ring circus to keep children entertained at all times in order to have a positive climate, but rather that attending school should be a positive experience for students as it helps to enhance self-image.

Some of the statistics reported by Rahe (1987) concern students and their perceptions of school. He tells us that when children enter school, about 80% of them feel good about themselves and feel good about school in general. By the time they reach the fifth grade this number has dropped to only 20% of the students feeling good about themselves and school. By the time they reach their senior year, the number has dropped to a mere 5%.

How can we combat this trend? Research by NAESP (1986) reports that one of the characteristics of an effective school is that they actively seek and create a positive environment—one that promotes mutual respect, warmth, high standards, high achievement, and enhances student motivation.

Being a positive influence is one area that is in your control not only as a school leader but as a person. As Clement Wilson once said, about our role as individuals, "There is only a little difference we can make in this world but that difference is in our attitude if it is positive or negative." A positive attitude produces a climate for success and is an excellent image or role to model.

Cruickshank (1980), in his research on teaching, also found that teachers can, in fact, create a more positive atmosphere that will help students succeed. They can do this by:

- Teaching clearly—that is, by offering precise statements of purpose, explaining concepts with examples, helping students organize their work, and clearly stating expectations
- Being enthusiastic—demonstrating to students that they enjoy what they are teaching and that it is important
- Using measurable objectives—setting forth clear and measurable objectives and demonstrating how learning activities relate to the objectives
- Allowing failure—allowing students to fail without criticism; expecting them to make many trials, but leaving these trials undocumented
- Recording success—recording all student successes as they occur in class and giving positive feedback about successes
- Matching tasks with skills—matching the learning tasks utilized in class with student skills and interests
- Providing opportunities for student success—assigning some tasks at which students are sure to succeed
- Varying teaching styles and materials—using a variety of teaching styles and materials, and adjusting the content to the learner
- Giving students opportunity to learn—providing students with the best opportunity to learn the material covered—through a careful organization of lessons
- Teaching study skills—teaching students how to study and reemphasizing, throughout the year, the importance of study skills
- Being professional—acting businesslike and being work-oriented while supervising or directing most student activities, but always in a warm and congenial manner
- Attend to both personal and academic student growth—helping students get the most out of school by attending to personal as well as academic growth and development.

Interestingly, the same body of research (Cruickshank, 1980) on teaching found that students in turn have some definite expectations for their teachers, and that these expectations are a direct reflection of the expectations that other people, such as administrators and parents, also have for them. Students expect their teachers to be: a) helpful, b) fair, c) patient, d) firm, e) encouraging, and f) friendly.

Conclusion For Administrators

Throughout the research, however, we find that the principal is still the key actor in creating the conditions and environment that will support the success mentioned above. Judith Little (1981) has suggested a four-step method to assist administrators in creating this collegial atmosphere in our schools.

First—You must announce your expectation of collegiality or creation of an environment for success. You must explain what is meant by a positive environment, show examples of how it already exists and how everyone can contribute to building a positive attitude.

Second—You must model the behaviors you desire. If you have high expectations of cooperation and support, then you must actively pursue them in your dealings with staff, students and parents.

Third—You must defend those who are taking the risks to spread the sought-after practices of high standards. You can do this by providing the rationale, publicizing it with the central office and the community, and securing approval for it.

Fourth—You must sanction or reward the desired behavior of insisting on high expectations by giving teachers credit and recognition for their efforts and spreading the news of what's happening that is successful. Remember, it has to be positive, or at least a positive experience, in order for it to be effective and successful.

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Reprinted with permission from: The School Administrator,
December 1988.

Do Two Hats Spell Double Trouble?

BY DAN WOLL
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More difficult all the time is for the truly small school districts in the country to maintain their independence. In Wisconsin, for example, the number of school districts with K-12 enrollments of under 500 has gone from 7,000 to 432 in the past 40 years.

Under steady pressure from state departments of education, small schools' boards of education find themselves forced to seek out more ways to become effective and efficient. Boards are particularly concerned with per-pupil costs.

One widespread method of cutting costs in small districts is to combine the functions of administrators. The most common combination combines the duties of the superintendent and the principal. In some school districts, the superintendent may be the only certified administrator in the system.

The most obvious benefit comes in the form of financial savings. When the superintendent takes the place of a full-time principal, the savings to the district are not inconsequential—in the range of $30,000 to $50,000 per year.

School boards are also inclined to favor the high degree of accountability that is handed down to the single administrator. When the superintendent is also the principal, layers of administration which sometimes shield poor performance or hinder communication are eliminated.

The superintendent/principal also does not have to worry about dissension within the administrative staff. What the superintendent decides is communicated exactly as he or she imagines. It can not be mediated by the high school principal, for example, because the superintendent and the principal are one.

Without any negative effects on the educational system, this kind of structure would be beneficial to small school districts. But some negative effects must be considered.

> ***"Small school district superintendents...are not able to do twice the work of their counterparts in large schools."***

What ultimately sets back small school districts is not their per-pupil costs, but that in some cases, they are unable to present educational opportunities equal to those offered in larger school districts. These lack of opportunities may be directly related to the lack of administrative resources available when leadership positions are combined.

The most obvious criticism of the dual administratorship is simply that much is left undone. Whether one examines a school district of 3,000 or 300 students, the scope and sequence remains the same, only the magnitude changes.

As a Wisconsin small school administrator said recently, "I fill out the same reports that all the rest of you do. I just put smaller numbers in the boxes."

Small school district superintendents are not superhuman. They are not able to do twice the work of their counterparts in large schools. Consequently, they are forced to prioritize their work. Unfortunately, some of the things that are left undone are necessities. Curriculum development is a prime example.

Arguing against the need for comprehensive review and development is hard. However, when one must manage the daily crises and routines, including discipline, communications with parents, and ongoing board matters, understanding how curriculum development can get shuffled to the bottom of the pile is easy.

Then, when comparisons between small and large schools are made, this is one of the first areas to stand out. The dual administratorship also exacts a large amount of wear and tear on the administrator and contributes to a high degree of turnover.

There are few administrators who take these kind of positions with the goal of staying there for the duration of their careers. These dual positions are generally seen as stepping stones and thus, contribute to a high rate of discontinuity in the small school superintendency.

To assume that the district can't develop a solid curriculum and educational program is reasonable if the chief executive officer changes every other year.

Moreover, while the superintendent/principal does not have the problem of dissension between administrative staff members, he or she lacks vertical insulation within the organizational structure. Every complaint no matter how petty comes to his or her desk directly for resolution.

In schools with full-time principals, many of these time consuming but relatively unimportant problems are addressed before they reach the superintendent's desk which allows more time to generate a strategic program and mission for the district.

The other adverse consequence to having every matter reach the superintendent's desk without screening is that some of the position power is removed from the superintendent. While an open door policy is advisable and taxpayers should feel that their superintendent is responsive and accessible, having people believe that he or she can be interrupted at any time for any reason is not productive.

Even some basic safety concerns exist with a dual administratorship. For example, when the superintendent is the building principal, who is in charge when he or she is absent? Generally, the system must depend on the willingness of a teacher to take charge of the building—usually a person unlicensed for administration.

When a school district is forced into combining the position, however, several factors can mitigate the built-in negative effects. The availability of an excellent bookkeeper or business manager is one positive factor.

If a district has this kind of resource, a superintendent can reasonably spend more of his or her time on personnel and other areas.

Autonomy for the superintendent also becomes extremely important. Boards may be uncomfortable with this idea, but when an administrator has two jobs to do at the same time, he or she must be able to act with at least as much independence as his or her counterparts in large districts. Failure to grant this autonomy may result in extreme micro-managing.

Moreover, if the board is not in the habit of backing up day-to-day administrative decisions, trouble is assured. Even if the board is generally supportive, one maverick member can consume an enormous amount of time by questioning routine administrative decisions.

A good relationship between the school board and the teaching staff also facilitates the role of a superintendent/principal. If the teachers and the professional association have good feeling toward the school district and the administration, they are much more inclined to help out and take some of the load off the administrator in terms of supervision and resolution of student issues.

Clearly, the dual administratorship is a risky option for school boards. If separating administrative positions is a financial possibility, then no good reason exists not to.

Nonetheless, proposing that every school district has the ability to pursue ideal options in this area is unrealistic. If administrative positions must be combined, special attention should be paid to the attendant pressures and steps should be taken to alleviate them.

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Ideas for a Total Public Relations Program in a Rural School District

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In these days of dollar-watching, penny-pinching and budget balancing, you can still get a maximum amount of good public relations and improved communications at a low cost. Remember, grassroots public relations can be many things - your secretary answering her phone with a smile - a teacher stopping in the grocery store to chat about activities - a nice note coming home about a child's latest project. With some extra effort, a school or school system can magnify these basic things, at very little cost, and reap great benefits.

Begin by strengthening internal communications and internal relations

- Be honest and open with all employees.
- Send short notes - brief letters of appreciation or congratulations for a job well done, a community award or special achievement. (Use internal mail system)
- Prepare a staff newsletter that will get to each employee.
- Have informal get-togethers with all employees invited (dutch treat or pot luck).
- Hold positive meetings with all employees several times a year.

Get to know your local media representatives

- Be honest and open with all reporters.
- Get to know the people who will be covering your school or system. Tour them through your school; let them ride a bus route; serve them lunch.
- Be aware of deadlines and try to meet them.
- Give them good material for feature stories, and don't get a reputation of calling for a story on every little activity.

- Work toward a "school interest page" - a weekly calendar of events or regular feature on a school program with your local newspaper.
- Radio stations use many public service announcements. Approach them with the idea of using items related to your school or system in this manner.

Let the community know what's going on in your school

- Be honest and open with members of your community.
- Provide a "speakers' bureau" to talk to area clubs, civic groups and gatherings on school-related topics, such as travels, hobbies, collections.
- Display student art work in local shopping centers, malls, banks, supermarkets.
- Offer community open-houses and tours of your school.
- Keep them informed through the local media about activities and events, programs and accomplishments.

Establish a sense of rapport with students - they are your best PR campaign

- Be honest and open with students.
- Have informal meetings with groups of six or seven students as a sort of idea exchange about student involvement in school and school projects.
- Get students involved in community projects - a community oral history - working with handicapped students or adults - serving as convention tour guides for small groups interested in seeing your schools.
- Encourage student writing for school column, or for short news items.

Involve businesses in the school system

- Arrange for businesses to tour the schools.
- Have a spokesperson from major industries or business in your area come in to explain the impact of the company on different aspects of life in

the community to students. Expands appreciation on both sides of the fence.

Always listen and strive for two-way communication

- Take simple, one-page or half-sheet "rapport cards" with you when you talk to groups, to get an idea of what the members of your audience think of your school, what they want from it, and what they feel could be improved.
- Always return calls.
- Public opinion is no further away than your telephone.

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RURAL SCHOOL LEADERSHIP FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Presents six major problems relating to curriculum development in small schools and discusses potential solutions.

Leadership for curriculum development in the rural school is made difficult because of certain recurring problems—past neglect of comprehensive curriculum studies with the attendant apathy of teachers, the large amount of teacher turnover, the limited number of teachers for any one grade level or subject area, difficulty in finding time to do curriculum work, lack of adequate financing, and disinterest of some school board members. If administrators or teachers in rural schools are to be effective in conducting curriculum studies, they must be prepared to resolve these problems. The purpose of this article is to help rural school leaders by suggesting solutions to these six major problems frequently found in small school districts.

PROBLEM 1: The district has not completed a comprehensive curriculum study for both elementary and secondary schools in recent years. As a leader you find the teachers apathetic toward any suggestions you make about starting such a study.

Solution: Mentally review any recent curriculum work which was undertaken by one or more teachers in your district. Discuss with the teachers their experiences. Did you or your predecessor use the results they obtained to improve the curriculum? Was a reason found for not implementing the suggested changes? Much teacher apathy toward curriculum development and teacher disapproval of curriculum leaders can be traced to the failure of leaders to capitalize on the time and energy teachers expend in curriculum study. If at the present time you can salvage any of the work these teachers did, then do so.

In the future, avoid situations where you must reject the product of teachers' efforts. To do this set the limits within which the teachers can work prior to their beginning the study. If teachers adhere to the pre-set framework of operation, then you as the leader must implement their decisions. For example, if texts and instructional materials are being selected for a subject area, then set limits on cost, quantity, and the amount the content can differ from previously set instructional goals. Assure teachers that if they stay within this framework, their decisions will be implemented.

If you know from experience or from talking with teachers that there has never been an attempt to have a comprehensive curriculum study, then try to analyze the situation to determine the reasons why such studies have been neglected. Problems other than teacher apathy may exist.

PROBLEM 2: The large amount of teacher turnover in rural schools results in teachers frequently being unaware that curriculum study is needed. The newer teachers are busy preparing for their classes, and the more established faculty members have become accustomed to doing things their own way "without interference from the office."

Solution: Discuss with the teachers the desirability of having continuity in the curriculum and the difficulty of achieving this in a rural school. Emphasize that the major goals of the school and the major concepts in the subject areas should be planned and must be a part of the curriculum regardless of whom the teachers are. Some curriculum experts stress the need for continuity not only in the achievement of goals and concepts, but also in the development of thought processes and interpersonal relations (Doll, 1978). The greater the teacher turnover, the greater the need for curriculum study. The perception the leader has for the need of continuity may be quite different from the perceptions of curriculum study held by teachers. They may view curriculum study as "busy work" or as "rubber stamping" the administrator's preconceived plans.

In rural districts that hire many local residents as teachers, it is possible these teachers have seen the school continue for a rather long period of time without much change taking place. They see no particular reason for considering curriculum change necessary. The leader must be prepared to state the purposes he sees for advocating a curriculum study. Teachers must be told the leader's purposes, otherwise they feel he has a hidden agenda ("Who does he want to get rid of?"); or they may believe the leader considers all of their past efforts in the school to be of little value ("What's wrong with the way we've been doing it?"). Be ready to modify your views if worthy suggestions for conducting a study are made, but also be ready to stand firm and exercise leadership if apathy will sabotage the curriculum study.

PROBLEM 3: In rural school districts, the small number of teachers engaged in teaching any one elementary school grade level or secondary school subject area does not permit the interaction needed for a fruitful exchange of ideas. Group discussion about curriculum processes and content is limited.

Solution: Establish a curriculum council consisting of both elementary and secondary teachers. Be certain that the council has no more than five to seven members. Don't try to have all grade levels and subject areas represented on this committee. Select members on the basis of their leadership ability and the respect other teachers have for their judgment. Do not use an election procedure for selecting these council members because factors other than leadership and judgment enter into the selection (Littrell, 1978).

The function of the curriculum council will be: (a) to suggest procedures teachers will use in working as groups or individuals during the curriculum study, (b) to provide materials which present new curriculum ideas for various grade levels and subject areas, (c) to discuss ideas generated by individuals or small groups with teachers involved, and (d) to frequently evaluate the progress being made in order to make suggestions for modifying or changing the process or products. Having the curriculum council meet with teachers to discuss the curriculum study serves two purposes: (a) it gives an opportunity for a greater amount of interaction and exchange of ideas, and (b) it makes the curriculum study the responsibility of the council and teachers as well as the administrative leader.

PROBLEM 4: In a rural school it is difficult to find time for teachers to take part in curriculum study. Although time is a problem in schools of all sizes, it is particularly difficult when teachers are involved in school activities during scheduled periods of the day, and when teachers have several different preparations with little time for planning scheduled during the school day.

Solution: The practice of hiring substitute teachers during the regular school day so the teachers can work on the curriculum has seldom proved to be satisfactory. Teachers feel it is time consuming to prepare for the substitute and that they must reteach whatever was taught. Principals find it difficult to get substitutes in communities where only two or three qualified persons are available. However, if no other plan can be devised, then the use of substitute teachers to provide time for the regular teachers to participate in curriculum study may have to be adopted.

The following two plans to meet the time problem have been used in small schools. First, have a system of Board of Education credit which supplements the usual state requirements for certification. Such credit can be applied toward contract renewal and upward movement on the salary schedule. The credit may be obtained in a variety of ways, one of which may be assisting with the curriculum study. One school using this system alternated the hours they held their study meetings. One session would begin at 2:30 p.m. after students were released early and would continue until 5:00 p.m. The next time a meeting was held it would be after school from 4:00 p.m. to 6:30 p.m. Following the meeting, a dinner would be furnished by the district. In each case the teachers were required to meet at a time other than regular school hours. However, they were engaged in an activity which affected their tenure and salary.

A second plan used by a different school district and one which is becoming rather common in some states is to have scheduled Inservice Education days. These days are a part of the teachers' contracts. More can be accomplished in five to six uninterrupted hours than in five or more one-hour meetings held before or after school. Since teachers are being paid for these days, they do not feel "put upon." Such a plan also solves the problem of attendance at meetings by those teachers who are involved in coaching or sponsoring extra-class activities. It is almost impossible to find a time on regular school days when these teachers can attend meetings. During the Inservice Education days, all teachers will be free from the extra-class responsibilities.

PROBLEM 5: It is difficult for smaller school districts to finance a comprehensive curriculum study. Frequently there is little or no money available for paying consultants, hiring substitute teachers, or buying the needed material resources.

Solution: Schools can be relieved from paying substitute teachers by using either of the plans suggested above. However, if the Inservice Education day plan is used, then the additional days are added to the regular contracted school year with an added cost for salaries. In terms of productivity of workers, though, more can be obtained for the money spent by having Inservice Education days than by hiring substitute teachers to replace teachers for shorter meeting times.

Although consultants do cost money, their services may save money over a period of time. You can sav money if, as a leader, you plan with the consultan prior to the time he/she works with the teachers. Having an organized plan of operation eliminates the wasted hours which can evolve if people are groping though a study with little or no sense of direction. Another way to save money is to use consultative help which is either free or inexpensive. Members of a State Department of Education can be used on a short-term basis; graduate student interns from a University usually can be obtained by paying their expenses. A chairperson and/or team from a regional accrediting agency generally do not charge fees. Money will be saved by hiring consultants who have a record of being helpful and practical. Beware of the pseudo-expert. Many curriculum changes have occurred in schools under consultants who promulgate curriculum ideas which are ". . . the result of imitation, opportunism, and pressure from special interest groups" (Marks, 1971).

Money for resource materials can be saved by using nine sources which have been identified by Wiles and Bond (1979). These sources are: teachers, schools, school districts, State Departments of Education, regional agencies, national networks such as IGE and ERIC, professional associations such as the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, associations for subject area teachers and administrators, commercial publishers and other bu nesses. A visit to a University library which has a curriculum or instructional materials center can be of value in gaining new ideas or previewing materials from the sources listed above before purchasing them. The preview of the materials may aid in making decisions about ordering.

PROBLEM 6: School board members are frequently more concerned with the sports program, the school's discipline, and lowered costs of education than with the curriculum. Their receptivity to plans for a comprehensive curriculum development program may be minimal.

Solution: At each meeting of the school board have a 20-30 minute presentation by an elementary or secondary teacher on some aspect of the present curriculum. Such a procedure not only stresses the importance of the curriculum, but also leads to discussion of the need for changes. Another plan is to forward reprints of journal articles about the curriculum to the board members. Be certain these articles are ones that are written in language familiar to the layman. If a consultant is being used to present some aspect of the curriculum to the board, then use journal reprints on the topic prior to his/her presentation. The consultant should have access to the same articles. Such a procedure gives the board members an overview of the topic prior to the meeting. They can come to the meeting with some understanding of the topic and with well-prepared comments or questions. The North Central Association has a set of slides promoting self-evaluation for schools. These slides can be used with both board members and teachers to promote better understanding of the need for curriculum study.

Concluding Statement

The six problems and suggested solutions which have been presented are ones that the author has observed and tried during his professional career. Neither the problems presented nor the solutions which are given are to be considered as complete. Each school district will have its own unique problems which require unique solutions. However, the problems which have been addressed in this article are common ones in rural schools. The solutions which have been given should help make the rural school leader's role in curriculum development easier to fulfill.

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The Microcomputer in the Small School District

Jerry Whitworth, Ed.D.

SCHOOL administration has become increasingly complex in recent years. A virtual explosion of legislation, regulation, and information has added an entirely new dimension to the field of educational management. This increasing complexity has resulted in a number of difficulties for the school administrator and has created obstacles to the goal of effective management.

Nowhere are these difficulties more acutely felt than in the small local school district. It is here that the local administrator, already over-extended in attempting to fulfill virtually every management function, must face a spiraling work load created by this expanding body of information. This has produced the beginning of a new era in school business management.

This new era of management demands a new administrator, an administrator who is in tune with these new challenges and new opportunities. This is an exciting time, for, along with the problems, there is also a marvelous technological growth occurring that promises a bright new future for the field of school business administration.

The key to this new future is an understanding of, and an ability to fully utilize, the potential of the microcomputer. To the enlightened school administrator this technology offers the possibility to not only stay even with this information explosion, but to manage the school business affairs more effectively than ever before.

Outlined below are the three major areas in which the microcomputer can aid the small district business official.

Computerized Accounting. The microcomputer makes what was once a complex, often confusing, task extraordinarily simple. Today even the smallest school district can use the most modern, sophisticated accounting practices. By utilizing the appropriate software, the small school district administrator can implement a double entry, fully integrated bookkeeping system that will provide precise, up-to-the minute information. Such a system, by analyzing data and preparing reports, can give the administrator more effective control over the flow of money through the district.

> The small school district administrator can now have the same advantages that would be possible with a whole staff of research assistants.

Such software is reasonably inexpensive and, through reduction of labor and improvement in efficiency, will quickly pay for itself. Gainsville, Missouri is a district of approximately 850 students and a $2.5 million budget. The software system we use cost around $3,500 and runs on an IBM PC-XT. It is designed to meet all of the state's regulations and reporting requirements and is more than adequate for our district's needs.

Electronic Mail, On-Line Subscription Services. One of the problems faced by the small district administrator is how to stay current with research and information in the field of school management. The pinch of finances makes it impossible to travel to many national meetings where much of this information is disseminated. Another factor precluding travel is that in most small districts, the school administrator must take on so many varied responsibilities that it becomes difficult to leave for any length of time.

One possible solution is to subscribe to an on-line computer service, such as the one offered by the American Association of School Administrators. The district probably owns most of the hardware required, with the possible exception of a telephone modem. Through such a service the small district administrator can have all of the latest studies and research findings at his/her fingertips without even leaving the office. An added plus is the electronic mail capability of such services. This allows the school administrator to "talk" with other school administrators from across the nation on topics of mutual concern and interest.

Integrated Software. Perhaps the area with the greatest management potential for the small district administrator is the use of integrated software. Such software provides the user with word processing, spread sheet, and electronic filing capabilities in one integrated system. Utilizing this type of software (Apple's AppleWorks is one example, and there are others) the school administrator can keep personnel and inventory records, correspondence,

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NEW DECISION-SUPPORT SOFTWARE

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access to central mainframe computers (which act as knowledge based utilities at the local, state and national level) is also important. Being able to electronically consult with state education agencies and such federal organizations as the National Center for Education Statistics and the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems is possible by the attachment of a modum. Some programs even dial the number automatically. In the next few years we will see a new wave of administrative knowledge processing computer products that communicate automatically and touch every aspect of what we do. Human expertise is not only being replicated, but multiplied in effect.

Amplifying Administrative Prowess in the Future. We are in an age in which crucial decisions must be made quickly, efficiently and accurately with as much professional expertise as possible. The development of interactive microcomputer programs to support administrative planning and the decision-making process is a new reality. Administrators are now able to tap into a wide range of computer programs to explore alternate strategies in an interactive manner. The decision-making process can be enhanced and the consequences of alternate choices modeled. It is then possible to analyze the effect a change in one aspect of that model might have on the whole. Decision-support information, previously provided by middle level administrators, can be available to top administrators electronically.

We are now confronted with the first wave of artificially intelligent administrative technology. In the future we will have programs that can perform more humanlike functions and further extend decision-making and administrative skills. Not only will inference, association and learning be part of the process, but also speech, text, graphics, sensory perception and, yes, even intuition. By the end of the decade, advanced versions of decision support software will be able to carry on discussions with computer users. Artificial intelligence experts also project that programs will be available that are capable of demonstrating a wider range of reasoning power—software that more fully represents duplication of the human cognitive process. With these developments we can anticipate increasing acceptance and reliance on computers in nearly all areas of administration.

However, the same development that will make a few administrators more productive may put many more (especially middle level managers) into other areas of work. Artificial intelligence experts have a long-term goal of developing computer systems that do nothing less than surpass human capabilities in

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MICROCOMPUTER

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budget projections and estimates, and other information on file. Then, using the integration features of the software, the administrator can produce reports and organize data in whatever arrangement is needed.

The potential for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of information processing and management is enormous. No longer is it necessary to spend hours digging through file cabinets or pouring over figures with paper and pencil. The small school district administrator can have the same advantages that would be possible with a whole staff of research assistants.

The computer age has certainly ushered in exciting new challenges and opportunities. For the administrator in the small school district, it has opened important new vistas with the promise of new levels of effectiveness in educational management. By being alert to these opportunities, and taking advantage of them, effective management will become more than a promise—it will be a reality. ■

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Volume 8, Number 2, Winter 1986-87.

GUIDELINES FOR MEETING COMPUTER NEEDS IN SMALL DISTRICTS

Llovd Cooper
Kathleen Forrer

Introduction

Although computer use in the schools began in the business office, other administrative applications soon followed as school executives realized the value of custom data bases for planning, budgeting, reporting and various other administrative functions. Payroll, inventory, accounts payable, along with state attendance reports, project proposals, budgets, and countless other administrative operations have now been computerized. Yet, in spite of the fact that computers have been available and in general use for twenty years or more, their use has fallen far short of optimum in many district administrative offices.

More than half of the nation's school districts qualify for small district status. That is, more than half of the nation's educational effort is accomplished in districts with total district enrollment of fewer than a thousand students. While the numbers of students they serve may be small, these largely rural districts must perform practically all of the same administrative functions performed by their larger metropolitan counterparts. Deadlines for federal and

Kathleen Forrer *Lloyd G. Cooper*

state reports must be met, teachers must be evaluated, and budgets and salary schedules must be constructed. Day-by-day administrative routines must be performed, most often by the district superintendent and a business manager. In the smaller districts there is not the luxury of a data processing division, the special expertise of a planning and budget office, nor the technical support of an accounting division. In the small district, not only is the superintendent the instructional leader and political spokesman, but typically he is also responsible for all of the administrative functions in the central office.

In a setting such as this, the strength of computer technology can add an impressive dimension to administrative practice. With the now general availability of microcomputers at low to moderate costs, increasing access to good management software, and a general administrative climate in which computer technology is expected, small districts in particular should look closely at ways of improving their utilization and selection of this technology.

Guidelines For Computer Selection

One singular characteristic of small districts is their limited budgetary resources and lack of technical personnel in the central office. As a consequence, computer resources for small districts must first be inexpensive. Then, they must be simple and maintenance free. Finally, they must meet the predominant needs of the users without extensive modification.

Small district superintendents frequently express concern about making the best choice. With ever increasing options ranging from desktop microprocessors to fairly complex and expensive mainframe units, superintendents are faced with decisions that are not easy to make. This dilemma is not eased by the fact that every vendor can give impressive arguments in favor of his or her particular computer and software.

When faced with the question of which way to go in meeting the district's computer needs, the small district administrator may use the following guidelines:

- Computer technology is available which can definitely assist in handling many of the routine chores which consume so much of the administrator's time. The choice, therefore, is not whether or not to use this technology, but rather when and in what context it is to be used.
- Do your own research. Listen to vendors, but check with more neutral sources as well. The local library is bound to carry journals, such as *T.H.E. Journal, Personal Computing*, or *Creative Computing* that contain reviews of and feature articles on both hardware and software written in a manner the non-technical user can understand. Attend workshops. And, most important of all, talk to other administrators who have already installed the type of computer you are considering. You can greatly profit from the experience of those with similar needs who have already made the big decision. In addition, vendors should be willing to supply you with the names of people already using their products. If a vendor cannot or will not give you such references, it is time to find another vendor. Because the decision you are about to make involves a substantial commitment in terms of both time and money, and because that commitment can be redirected later only after the expenditure of considerable time and money, you have to "get it right" the first time.
- Do not select either a computer or a software package on the basis of a single criterion. Because your resources are limited, you want the most versatile equipment you can get for the money you have to spend. What this means is that, in addition to selecting the best hardware for the money, you also have to pay close attention to the available software. The computer that is technically best, i.e., fastest, etc. may do you little good if there is no software designed for it that will fit your particular needs. In fact, it is probably better to look at available software before investing a great deal of decision-making time on hardware.

- Before making your final selection, check the service and maintenance records of the computers you are considering. Particularly in a rural district, the speed and availability of service is of prime importance. Reliability is worth more than all the fancy gimmicks in the world.
- In choosing software, look for packages that are specifically designed for or easily adapted to the requirements of an educational setting. General or business software may not work particularly well for you. Larger districts in your state, however, may have software designed by their own programmers that is tailor-made to state requirements. Do some digging and borrow where you can. It is much easier not to reinvent the wheel, even if you do have someone in your district who can do some programming. Also, keep the user in mind. The easier the software is for the people in your office to use the more likely it is to be used and to remain in use.
- After you have decided on the best hardware and software, but before you have anything delivered, prepare your office staff for the arrival of technology. If the person who will be charged with computerizing the office is looking forward to the challenge rather than dreading the responsibility, your job will be a lot simpler. Send your staff to the central office in other districts so they can see the computers in operation on-site. Arrange to have them attend in-service meetings so that they can get hands-on experience. Everything that you can do to build up their confidence ahead of time will make the eventual transition to automation much smoother for everyone.
- Finally, when it's time to buy the computer itself, shop around. You may be surprised at the price differences among vendors. And don't stop at the local vendor or vendors. Discounts are given for large orders so see if you can pool your order for one microcomputer with that of a district ordering many. If you have access to an educational cooperative, see if the cooperative can offer you a good price through a group purchase. There are many ways to make your money go further.

The keys to successfully introducing computer technology to the small district are careful planning, investigation, and preparation. Making the right decision is hard work but the long-term benefits are well worth the effort.

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MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES
FOR
PRINCIPALS

From: Linking the Behaviors and Activities of Secondary School Principals to School Effectiveness: A Focus on Effective and Ineffective Behaviors. Reprinted with permission from the Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR.

The observers had first been given a characteristic and asked to think of effective or ineffective behaviors that created or destroyed it. The researchers wanted to verify the logic of their judgments by looking at behaviors first and sorting them by characteristic and by effectiveness. Each behavior description was written on a separate card, and then the cards were sorted by each member of the research team according to that person's own belief about which characteristic they were related to and their effectiveness. The cards were also sorted by a group of experts that included a superintendent, an assistant superintendent, an elementary principal, a teacher, and a high school administrator, who worked individually.

When the process was completed, every behavior had either seven or eight independent judgments about its effectiveness and about which characteristic it was associated with. The researchers retained behaviors when six of those judgments agreed--335 behaviors in all.

The Behaviors

The observers, researchers, and experts agreed on the characterization of 133 ineffective behaviors and 202 effective behaviors. All the effective and ineffective behaviors for each characteristic are listed in Appendix A. Because there was such a large number of effective and ineffective behaviors, the researchers divided these behaviors into subcategories that allowed them to generalize about effective principal behavior. A display of all subcategories of behaviors is found in Figure 2.

The goal of this pilot study was to identify some specific principal behaviors that might be linked with particular characteristics of effective schools, not to demonstrate empirically the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of such behaviors. Nevertheless, the resulting set of effective behaviors suggest actions that principals might take to improve their schools'

FIGURE 2: EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE BEHAVIORS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS LINKED WITH SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Characteristic 1: School-Wide Measurement and Recognition of Academic Success

Effective Behaviors

A. Makes special efforts in addition to regular ongoing systems to give high quality recognition for academic achievement.

B. Sets up ongoing systems to provide recognition of academic success.

C. Encourages the use of standardized testing for student academic performance.

D. Gives personal recognition to individual students for their specific academic achievements.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Mishandles student recognition.

B. Ignores or misuses standardized tests.

Characteristic 2: Orderly and Studious Environment

Effective Behaviors

A. Enforces discipline personally with students.

B. Establishes and enforces a clear code of conduct regarding rules such as attendance and absence policies.

C. Provides support and back-up for enforcement of discipline.

D. Assigns staff and resources to confront violation of established rules.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Permits student behavior that creates disorderly environment and disrupts classroom time.

B. Enforces discipline in a weak or inappropriate manner.

C. Does not establish and enforce a clear code of conduct including attendance and absence policies.

D. Avoids enforcement of discipline and promotion of a studious atmosphere.

Characteristic 3: High Emphasis on Curriculum Articulation

Effective Behaviors

A. Ensures scope and sequence exists and is being adhered to.

B. Demonstrates knowledge and interest in each curriculum.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Does not ensure scope and sequence exists and is being adhered to for each curriculum.

B. Does not provide administrative support for curriculum problems.

Characteristic 4: Support for Instructional Tasks

Effective Behaviors

A. Supports teacher decisions and needs with action.

B. Provides atmosphere and resources to complete staff instructional tasks.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Denies teachers supplies and resources through misadministration.

B. Displays a lack of confidence and respect for teachers.

C. Makes unreasonable demands on teachers outside of teaching responsibilities.

Characteristic 5: High Expectations and Clear Goals for the Performance of Students

Effective Behaviors

A. Encourages students to pursue challenging academic goals.

B. Establishes school-wide academic requirements.

C. Expects counseling programs to challenge students.

D. Sets instructional standards for teachers.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Minimizes importance of academic achievement in discussions with students.

B. Does not set specific goals for student performance.

C. Allows students to get by with unchallenging student academic schedules.

Characteristic 6: Collaborative Planning with Staff

Effective Behaviors

A. Listens actively to staff and faculty ideas and creates opportunities for staff to express ideas.

B. Provides resources and a supportive environment for collaborative planning.

C. Establishes school-wide goals and programs through staff input and participation.

D. Staffs committees with representatives from all sides.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Avoids staff involvement in decisions or discussions.

B. Provides little or no feedback after meetings

C. Does not provide resources or support for collaborative planning.

Characteristic 7: Instructional Leadership for Teachers

Effective Behaviors

A. Takes an active role in planning, conducting, implementing, and evaluating inservice training

B. Provides direction and support for individual teachers to eliminate poor instructional performance.

C. Provides direct instructional leadership in one-to-one interactions with individual teachers.

D. Makes sure specifics of each teacher's classroom performance are evaluated.

E. Hires an effective staff.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Does not provide effective feedback on instructional skills.

B. Denies importance of inservice programs.

C. Does not provide adequate classroom evaluation

D. Hires teachers without an emphasis on teaching performance.

E. Does not require teacher improvement.

Characteristic 8: Parental Support for the Education of Students

Effective Behaviors

A. Obtains active parental involvement in school activities.

B. Communicates personally with parents of individual students.

C. Informs parents of special programs and activities.

D. Interacts directly with parents and citizens to promote the school.

E. Establishes direct personal contact between parents and teachers.

Ineffective Behaviors

A. Avoids interpersonal communication with parents.

B. Communicates in a manner that will make parents angry or feel negative toward the school.

C. Discourages parental involvement.

D. Succumbs to nonacademic special interest groups.

E. Does not meet with parents on positive topics.

effectiveness, and the ineffective behaviors suggest actions that principals might well avoid. The researchers believe that the identification of these behaviors is an important step in transforming the term "principal leadership" from something vague and amorphous to a meaningful and useful term.

Characteristic 1: School-Wide Measurement and Recognition of Academic Success. Observers felt that there were many principal behaviors that clearly promoted or hampered this characteristic; it generated 35 effective behaviors and 9 ineffective behaviors.

These behaviors can be subdivided into four general categories: (1) makes special or unusual efforts to recognize academic success; (2) sets up ongoing systems to provide recognition of academic success; (3) encourages the use of standardized testing; and (4) gives personal recognition to individual students for specific academic achievements.

The first and most frequently mentioned group of behaviors encompasses principal efforts that are unusual or beyond those usually expected. It includes such things as bringing in outstanding speakers for the National Honor Society, displaying academic awards in the school trophy case, or attending a local organization's function held to honor students.

The second way to promote school-wide recognition of academic success, setting up ongoing systems to recognize success, includes such behaviors as arranging for regular publication of academic success stories in the community newspaper or planning regularly scheduled awards assemblies in all categories of students' performance.

The third group of behaviors included the acceptance, usage, promotion, and dissemination of standardized testing data. Convincing staff that general ability tests are important and encouraging standardized testing in subject areas are two such behaviors. This area represents an opportunity for principals to demonstrate that academic success is a high priority for them and that they believe the use of test data is important to the achievement of this recognition.

A final way to promote school-wide recognition of academic success is for a principal to give personal recognition to individual students. An example of behaviors in this category is presenting award certificates in person at the end of each grading period.

Only nine behaviors were recognized as particularly ineffective. (It should be remembered that by ineffective we mean somewhat more harmful than the usual meaning might imply.) They were summarized by two categories: (1) mishandling student recognition and (2) ignoring or misusing standardized tests. These behaviors are virtually the opposite of two of the categories of identified effective behaviors.

Characteristic 2: An Orderly and Studious School Environment. There were 28 effective and 16 ineffective behaviors relating to this characteristic of effective schools. The most numerous category of effective behaviors promoting this characteristic were those that could be summed up as "becoming personally involved in student discipline." These behaviors included such actions as personally presenting rules at an orientation convocation, personally confronting students who are "goofing off" in a study hall, and being frequently visible in all parts of the building.

Other behaviors that can promote an orderly school environment are those that establish or enforce a clear code of conduct regarding attendance and absence policies. These would include instituting computerized tabulation and reporting of attendance for each class period or creating a few comprehensive, easily understood rules.

Several more behaviors deal with the support of disciplinary policies or actions. Making suspensions "stick" or providing a suspension room are ways that principals can provide disciplinary back-up.

It is not enough, however, to establish, enforce, and support a discipline system. Important behaviors were identified that had to do with organizing staff and resources to implement the discipline policy. These behaviors include calling in police when necessary, designating counselors for problem students, and assigning staff to problem areas.

To summarize the behaviors promoting an orderly environment, it appears important to (1) enforce discipline personally, (2) establish and enforce clear attendance and absence policies, (3) provide support and back-up for enforcement of discipline, and (4) assign staff and resources to confront rule violations.

The researchers identified sixteen ineffective behaviors. They were divided into four general groups: (1) permitting behavior that creates a disorderly environment and disrupts classroom time, (2) enforcing discipline in a weak or inappropriate manner, (3) failing to establish or enforce a clear code of attendance and absence policies, and (4) being unwilling to enforce discipline.

Those behaviors of principals that were deemed ineffective appeared to be the direct opposite of behaviors the researchers considered effective. The most numerous behaviors were those that allowed disruptive behavior, such as excusing students to go shopping or allowing students to write graffiti on walls. Only one of the permitted behaviors violated an actual rule or policy (swearing at a teacher), but the rest offended the sensibilities of the observers, researchers, and experts. There appeared to be a shared recognition among them that it is ineffective for principals to permit certain behaviors that, although not officially designated as misbehaviors, seem clearly to be undesirable.

The behaviors summarized under enforcing discipline weakly or inappropriately include not expelling frequently suspended students, or saying merely "Nobody talks like that," when a student uses a four-letter word.

Failure to establish a clear code of conduct includes such actions as developing a code of conduct that is nothing more than a laundry list of "dos" and "don'ts," and claiming a rule exists that does not. It appears ineffective not to establish behavioral norms in the minds of students and staff.

The final type of ineffective behavior for promoting school order is the unwillingness of principals to enforce discipline. Behaviors that were identified here include walking out of unruly assemblies or disregarding rowdy students in a lunchroom. It appears ineffective for principals to avoid confronting misbehavior.

Characteristic 3: High Emphasis on Curriculum Articulation. With only nine behaviors, this characteristic was one of two that elicited the fewest behaviors. The effective behaviors can be summarized by three general categories: (1) ensuring that the school has a scope and sequence and that these are being adhered to, (2) expecting teachers to be aware of the school's various curricula, and (3) demonstrating knowledge of and interest in each curriculum. Most of the first type of behaviors describe the principal's role in the creation of scope and sequence of curricula, although one behavior involves ensuring that particular teaching content lies within the scope and sequence. Through the second set of behaviors principals acquainted staff with other curricula (such as scheduling meetings in different classrooms to allow teachers to see what is going on in other clases). The third type of behavior includes articulating the purpose of each curriculum to the community and attending workshops on new curricula. One possible reason few behaviors were mentioned in this area is that principals work through staff to implement curricula and therefore such behaviors might have been classified under other characteristics such as collaborative planning or instructional leadership.

The ineffective behaviors regarding curriculum articulation are not only the opposites of the effective behaviors, but also include some very different types of behavior. The eight ineffective behaviors can be grouped under two general headings: (1) neglecting to ensure that a scope and sequence exists and (2) not providing administrative support for curriculum problems. The characteristic is weakened if the principal refuses to allow programs that he or she is not personally interested in or if staff are permitted to violate an established scope and sequence.

Lack of administrative support includes such behaviors as failing to integrate the departmental program with the whole school program, or delegating curriculum responsibility without authority. Once again, the small number of behaviors listed here suggest that principals do not frequently address curriculum problems directly but rather through department heads, teachers, and district staff.

Characteristic 4: Support for Instructional Tasks. One might expect more behaviors than the nine listed under this characteristic, since it appears to have such a direct relationship to academic achievement. In fact, observers initially listed 55 behaviors under this characteristic, but only nine were retained by researchers and experts as being clearly relevant to this characteristic alone. The nine behaviors were divided into two general groups: (1) responding to teacher decisions and needs with direct actions (such as defending a teacher who is criticized) and (2) providing atmosphere and resources that help staff complete instructional tasks (such as providing extra pay for after-hours planning sessions).

Few ineffective behaviors were classified under this characteristic.

Three general areas sum up the 10 ineffective behaviors that were identified: (1) denying teachers supplies and resources by misadministration (such as limiting use of the copier to classified staff only), (2) displaying a lack of confidence and respect for teachers (such as not allowing teachers to have keys to the building), and (3) making unreasonable demands on teachers outside of teaching responsibilities (such as inconsiderately scheduling deadlines). Principals who exhibit these behaviors were viewed as obstructing the task of teaching.

Characteristic 5: High Expectations and Clear Goals for Student Performance. The behaviors listed under this characteristic not only convey high expectations to students, teachers, and counselors but also serve to create systems to achieve those expectations. The 20 behaviors were divided into four general categories: (1) personally or directly encouraging students to pursue challenging academic goals (such as encouraging students to take difficult courses), (2) establishing and emphasizing school-wide academic requirements (such as establishing a "proper English requirement" for papers in all classes), (3) expecting and supporting counseling programs that challenge students (by such behaviors as having counselors identify incoming sophomores capable of going on to college), and (4) setting instructional standards for teachers (such as insisting that teachers teach a full 50 minutes).

The ineffective behaviors are the opposites of the effective behaviors: students are not challenged in conversations with the principal (who asserts such things as "Athletes don't need to worry about grades"); the principal does not set specific goals for high school performance; and the principal allows unchallenging academic schedules (such as two or three periods of physical education).

Characteristic 6: Collaborative Planning with Staff. The 19 effective behaviors contributing to this characteristic are summed up by four general types of behavior: (1) listening actively to staff and faculty ideas and creating opportunities for staff to express ideas, (2) providing resources and a supportive environment for collaborative planning, (3) establishing school-wide goals and programs through staff input and participation, and (4) staffing committees with representatives from all sides. These behaviors make collaborative planning possible and support it after it is established.

The 14 ineffective behaviors that impede this characteristic fall into three general categories: (1) avoiding or limiting staff involvement in decisions or discussions, (2) providing little or no feedback or response, and (3) providing no resources or support for collaborative planning.

Characteristic 7: Instructional Leadership. Since instructional leadership is such a broad term and encompasses so many different activities, it is no wonder that this characteristic seemed to be supported by so many behaviors. The 38 specific effective behaviors are described by five general headings: (1) taking an active role in staff development activities by encouraging teachers to participate and use what they have learned, (2) improving the instructional performance of teachers and eliminating poor instructional performance, (3) providing direct instructional leadership in one-to-one interactions with individual teachers, (4) making sure the specifics of each teacher's classroom performance are evaluated, and (5) hiring an effective staff.

The largest number of behaviors relates to staff development of teachers. These behaviors range widely from a principal giving an individual teaching demonstration to a principal disseminating information about workshops or conferences. Behavior of the second type, efforts related to the improvement of teaching and the elimination of poor instructional performance, also range widely from evaluating and terminating an incompetent teacher to assigning effective teachers to work with weaker teachers. The third general category of behavior is similar to the first two but describes one-to-one interactions that occur between principals and teachers, such as sending a personal note to a teacher about instructional matters or modeling behavior for a teacher having problems teaching. The fourth type of behavior supports the hiring of an effective staff.

The ineffective behaviors that hamper instructional leadership also are extensive, suggesting that the characteristic is conceptually clear. They correspond with but are not the direct opposite of the effective behaviors. These 26 behaviors are summed up by five general categories: (1) not providing effective feedback on instructional skills, (2) not recognizing the importance of inservice programs, (3) providing inadequate teacher evaluation, (4) not emphasizing good teaching performance when hiring, and (5) not emphasizing teacher improvement.

Characteristic 8: Parental Support for the Education of Students. This characteristic, which involves communication with parents, generated more behaviors (44) than any other characteristic. The 44 behaviors are described by five general classes of behaviors: (1) obtaining active involvement in school activities; (2) communicating personally with the parents of individual students; (3) informing all parents of special programs and activities; (4) interacting directly with parents (and other citizens) to promote the school; and (5) establishing direct personal contact between parents and teachers.

The first type of behavior encourages parental involvement in such activities as writing articles for monthly newsletters, serving as volunteer supervisors in the cafeteria during lunchtime, or participating in a parent-student swap day. The other types of behaviors involve communicating positive as well as negative feedback to parents about their children's academic performance and special events, or ensuring that staff communicate directly with parents through newsletters or counseling programs.

The ineffective behaviors listed under "Parental Support" were the highest percentage (78.4 percent) of ineffective behaviors confirmed by recategorization within the same characteristic. These 40 behaviors were condensed into five subcategories: (1) avoiding interpersonal communication with parents; (2) communicating in a manner that will make parents angry or feel negative toward the school; (3) discouraging parental involvement; (4) succumbing to nonacademic special interest groups; and (5) avoiding meeting parents at social or civic functions.

The types of behavior related to this characteristic suggest that the principal has no agenda for promoting parent involvement, no network set up that could carry it out, and no means or inappropriate means for implementing an agenda or using a network.

Four of the types of behaviors refer to the opposites of the effective behaviors, but (4) describes a unique type of behavior -- succumbing to nonacademic special interest groups. In this particular case, parental involvement is actually detrimental to the academic agenda of the school.

Unclassified Unanimous Behaviors

In addition to the 335 behaviors discussed above, a group of 167 behaviors were unanimously agreed to be effective by observers, experts, and researchers, but elicited disagreement about which characteristic they should be classified under. Most of these behaviors were complex and could logically be classified under two or even more than two characteristics.

For example, the research team characterized one group of 21 such behaviors as "taking visible action to address faculty and staff concerns and problems." Because many behaviors in this group concerned listening to faculty suggestions for what should be going on in the school, they logically promoted Characteristic 6, Collaborative Planning with Staff; but since many also concerned acting on or implementing these plans, they related to Support for Instructional Tasks (Characteristic 4), Instructional Leadership (Characteristic 7), Parental Involvement and Support (Characteristic 8), and other characteristics.

Similarly, there were 138 unclassifiable behaviors that observers, experts, and researchers unanimously agreed were ineffective. A number of these behaviors related to taking action in certain specific areas without teacher input. This group of behaviors affected Characteristic 6, Collaborative Planning with Staff, but also because the specific areas (like curriculum articulation, school rules, or evaluation systems) were also related to other characteristics, the behaviors could not be classified under Characteristic 6 alone.

We list all these unanimous unclassified behaviors in Appendix B with a listing of the characteristics to which they were assigned. It is important they not be eliminated from the results of the study simply because they can be classified under more than one characteristic. Many behaviors (outside as well as inside schools) are complex and affect many different things, but complexity does not negate effectiveness. Neither are the distinctions between the characteristics negated or blurred merely because some behaviors affect more than one characteristic. These behaviors were unanimously agreed to be effective or ineffective and for this reason alone deserve attention.

Conclusion

The behaviors collected in this pilot study are a comprehensive list of effective and ineffective principal behaviors. The value of this compilation lies particularly in its linkage with important characteristics of effective schools. Taken as a whole, they suggest the role of the principal in creating those characteristics.

This extensive list of behaviors can be an important contribution to school effectiveness research. It is the first step in identifying which principal behaviors create the school characteristics that determine student achievement. It has implications for training and development progams; for the selection, placement, and evaluation of principals; and, finally, for professional development of principals interested in becoming more effective.

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KAROLYN J. SNYDER AND MARY GIELLA

Developing Principals' Problem-Solving Capacities

A pilot group of principals in Pasco County, Florida—who first were thoroughly trained themselves—are now beginning to train others in a research-based approach.

These days educators seem to agree on three points: (1) student achievement patterns can and must be improved; (2) the local school, under the brilliant leadership of the principal, is where necessary changes must be made; and (3) principals need a lot of help and support in order to pull it off. There may be less agreement about what help principals should get. Here we report a success story based on one view of the skills principals need and how they can be acquired.

The Pasco County School District, in Land O' Lakes, Florida, has designed a comprehensive Human Resources Management Development system to develop the capacity of current and future principals to influence how schools address and solve their learning challenges. The system includes provisions for selection, certification, development, and appraisal of principals.

In planning the certification and development dimensions, Pasco County selected the Managing Productive Schools (MPS) Training Program (Snyder in press) as its core two-year program, with others to be added as needed. The district selected 12 principals K-12 to participate in a pilot program. At the end of the first school year (1985–86), the participants recommended that the district make the program available to all current and future principals.

The 12 principals have since completed training in the ten management competencies. In April 1987, they began preparation as trainers, an effort that will enable Pasco County to build its own capacity for management development from within.

Here we wish to share how the training program made use of current research on management, instruction, and adult learning. What we have learned may be helpful to others who are designing leadership development programs.

The Management Training Program

The MPS Training Program, which consists of 30 days of training over two years, is based on three premises: (1) there is a knowledge base, admittedly imperfect and incomplete, to undergird improvement efforts; (2) the essential message for principals from that knowledge base is that effective leaders in all kinds of organizations facilitate *collaborative* efforts; and (3) developing "stretch" goals through collaborative efforts is fundamental to all developmental and assessment activities that follow.

The MPS Training Program is based on a four-cluster Management Model (Snyder and Anderson 1986)—organizational planning, staff development, program development, and school assessment—encompassing ten management competencies (see fig. 1). Here is a brief summary of the major research findings within each cluster and the training activities in which Pasco County principals engaged.

1. *Organizational Planning Cluster*

- *Research themes*. Productive organizations are driven by a few stretch goals identified through shared decision making. Goals are then subdivided into tasks and assigned to both permanent and temporary work groups and teams. The groups cooperatively develop action plans to accomplish their tasks. Within a group context, individuals establish performance goals that specify their intended contributions to the school's success. The resulting organizational plan becomes the focus for work, development, and assessment.
- *Training activities*. During the planning workshops, principals had two objectives: (1) to develop process

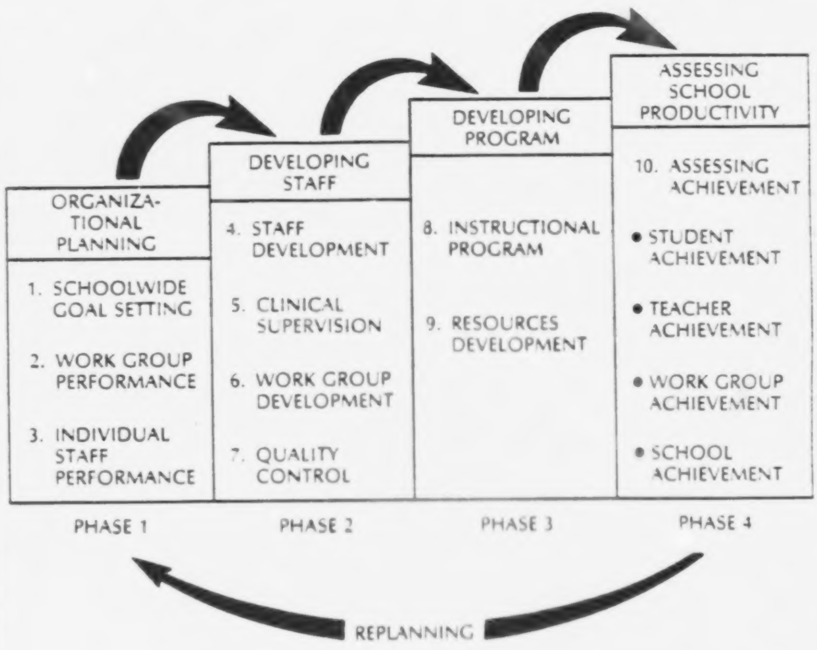

Fig. 1. A School Management Productivity Model

skills for leading collaborative decision making about school development goals, and (2) to design an organizational structure to accomplish the many tasks necessary to achieve the goals. A major outcome of the workshops was that principals learned that managing a productive school means organizing and developing groups of teachers (both teams and departments, as well as ad hoc task forces) that focus on school priorities in their work. Most principals were surprised to discover that having both permanent and temporary groups can invigorate their schools and increase the flow of ideas and information.

2. *Staff Development Cluster*

- *Research themes.* In productive organizations plans are made for knowledge and skill acquisition important for achieving goals. Staff members make workshop plans as they anticipate their collective needs and seek the best available resources. An important finding is that teachers' development processes are creatively stimulated when some form of coaching follows a workshop. Further, when work groups—the building blocks of successful organizations—are provided with skill-building opportunities, the capacity for shared inquiry and problem solving is enhanced. Collaborative forms of quality control are viewed as developmental and provide adjustment opportunities for the organization.

- *Training activities.* Using their cooperatively developed school improvement goals as a guide, the principals designed staff development systems (inservice, coaching, production, and organization) to facilitate the adult learning process. They learned the skills necessary to instruct their teaching teams and departments in peer coaching, action planning, communications skill building, conducting effective meetings, and group problem solving. They also designed a quality control system to provide staff opportunities for the periodic adjustment of plans and activities in accomplishing goals.

3. *Program Development Cluster*

- *Research themes.* When educators examine the student learning challenges they face, better solutions evolve from making use of the knowledge base. From the work of Bloom (1976) and others, we know that students master knowledge and skills to the extent that the following conditions exist: (1) instruction is matched with readiness levels, (2) instruction is guided by clear expectations and procedures, (3) active and interactive task engagement is managed, and (4) positive reinforcement and correctives are provided to ensure certain levels of mastery. Solutions to learning problems occur when leaders facilitate problem-solving and development activity and generate the necessary resources.

- *Training activities.* A continued focus of the workshops was on recognizing and correcting teaching problems and on managing instructional improvement efforts by teams and departments. The knowledge base on program planning, diagnosing readiness and style, classroom management, and teaching and learning patterns guided training sessions. The intent was to enhance each principal's ability to stimulate professional inquiry about learning and instruction among teams and departments.

4. *Organizational Assessment Cluster*

- *Research themes.* Productive organizations have complex assessment systems that measure the success of goals. Work groups assess the results of their work; individual staff members are assessed for their contributions to expected organizational outcomes; and student assessment data serve as a feedback measure for improving the instructional program. Assessment data in productive organizations provide a feedback loop for short-range planning and long-range growth targets.

- *Training activities.* Already knowledgeable about school evaluation, principals in the pilot group were guided in designing a comprehensive

"... having both permanent and temporary groups can invigorate ... schools and increase the flow of ideas and information."

assessment system that reflected various influences upon the attainment of school goals. Dimensions of school evaluation included measures of work group productivity, the results of individual teacher contributions, evaluation of leadership assistance, and measures of student achievement.

Table 1
The Competency Development Model:
A Workshop Series on "Developing Work Group Skills"

GUIDING CONCEPTS	APPLICATION IN THE WORKSHOP
READINESS STAGE	• Rationale for developing skills to work in groups • Management competency: to teach group leaders skills in action planning, communications, and problem-solving techniques
CONCEPTS STAGE	• Research patterns on the characteristics of productive work groups • Concepts: Stages of group development Group action planning Communications skills Problem-solving techniques: Force Field Analysis The Basics Creative Problem Solving
DEMONSTRATION STAGE	• Printed sample of a work group's action plan and its key components • Live demonstration of four communications skills • Videotape demonstration of "The Basics, Force Field Analysis, and Creative Problem Solving"
PRACTICE STAGE	• Teams of principals select one of the group skills demonstrated and prepare to teach those same skills to a simulated school group. • Each set of group skills demonstrated is taught by a team of principals in the workshop, using key concepts and techniques demonstrated.
REINFORCEMENT AND FEEDBACK STAGE	• Each team teaches one of the group skills to the others in training, while another team provides feedback, using the key concepts and techniques demonstrated. This stage reinforces for all participants the rationale for key concepts and techniques.
TRANSFER STAGE	• Principals develop two kinds of plans: (1) short-range practice of skills taught in the workshop, and (2) long-range efforts to develop the capacity of work groups and leaders. Follow-up coaching plans are also made for sharing and problem solving the practice experience and for sharing next step plans.

The Competency Development Process

As we planned the pilot program, we sought a workshop design that would stimulate the adult learning process.

There are two prevalent views of adult learning, and the results they produce are strikingly different. The *pedagogical* approach assumes that a body of external knowledge exists to be learned and practiced and that the learner remains dependent on that external source for validation. A more powerful view of adult learning, however, is the *andragogical* approach (Knowles 1980), which views external knowledge and instructors as resources to the learner in problem-solving activities that lead eventually to self-directed learning. Building on the andragogical model, Brookfield (1986) reports that adults learn to problem solve best when they are working on real problems in a group context.

Each workshop in the MPS Training Program is designed to support the concepts of self-directed learning and group problem solving about school challenges. The knowledge base for each of the ten training programs guides task activity during the workshop.

Our competency development model demonstrates the relationship between organizational expectations, workshop events, and on-the-job coaching. The literature emphasizes the importance of high organizational expectations to productivity (Drucker 1982, Peters and Waterman 1982) and of workshops that facilitate development followed by on-the-job coaching (Joyce and Showers 1982). If any one of the three dimensions—expectations, development opportunities, or coaching—is missing, competency development has less chance of occurring. When used as the basis for planning, these three interdependent variables provide both the context and the direction for professional growth within school organizations.

Six core dimensions (influenced by the work of Joyce and Showers 1982) drive the development model, each playing a vital role in management growth. The design is based on the assumption that learning results from a desire to resolve dilemmas or problems. The *readiness* stage of a workshop provides a rationale for the events to follow. In the *concepts* stage, principals are introduced to research patterns and other scholarly theories that hold promise for resolving specific problems. A conceptual base equips leaders with ways of thinking about issues and challenges, which subsequently replace how-to-do-it bags of tricks as problem-solving tools.

In the *demonstration* stage, principals view a portrayal of the concepts being used successfully to solve specific problems. This vicarious learning enables participants to rethink old patterns and "try on" new approaches. The *practice* stage of a workshop gives them an opportunity to try the new concepts under ideal conditions. Practice during the beginning stages of skill development increases the probability that the new concepts will find their way into the workplace.

Reinforcement and feedback are essential to skill development. Providing adults with feedback on their first practice increases the likelihood that successful on-the-job practice will occur. And, if adult learners both practice and give observation feedback, the concepts are then reinforced during the workshop at least three times.

The *transfer* stage encourages practice with follow-up coaching and assistance. Organizational support in this stage is essential for the actual application of knowledge and skills to problem solving on the job. Table 1 illustrates the workshop organization, focusing on "developing work group skills" (competency #6 within the staff development cluster) using the competency development model.

Results: Improved Ability to Solve Problems

We have made two major observations of the principals in our validation group. First, the concepts and skills helped each principal focus more clearly on the nature of management tasks for developing a productive school. These new and finely tuned skills have enabled them to stimulate more goal-focused collaborative activity. Principals are making fewer decisions by themselves as they develop in groups and leaders the capacity to share responsibility for school efforts and their results.

Second, the competency development model has supported the learning process and the interaction of all concepts and skills for the ten management competencies. The coaching sessions between workshops enabled principals to share the challenges they face. Networking has resulted from the selection of principals across K-12 levels.

After two years of training and of practice, the principals report that their teachers are more involved in decision making, that dissension is waning, and that their staffs are expanding their capacities for confronting challenges. ☐

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Introduction

It's hard to find a district or school that is not involved in some form of school improvement. The incentives - expanded resources, increased standards, and heightened public attention - are substantial. But improving schools is complex and difficult. Research and experience indicate that an improving process and the improvements themselves are difficult to sustain. In contrast to the literature that documents the scores of school improvement processes and extols the efforts of many educators, critics of the schools argue that very little substantive improvement has taken place over the last several years, despite the considerable energy and resources spent on reform. As Elmore and McLaughlin point out, "Reforms that deal with the fundamental stuff of education - teaching and learning - seem to have weak, transitory, and ephemeral effects; while those that expand, solidify and entrench school bureaucracy seem to have strong, enduring, and concrete effects." Existing structures for schooling cannot produce the kind of changes necessary to make a substantial difference.

There are several reasons for this assessment. Critics indicate that school improvement efforts have not produced the expected and needed outcomes because the people in the schools, and people closely associated with the schools, have not been sufficiently in control of decisions concerning important aspects of curriculum, instruction and the organization. This is particularly the case with the management of resources such as time, personnel, facilities, and dollars. By moving decision-making to the schools and increasing an accountability focus there, school improvement efforts, contend proponents, will flourish and prosper.

School-site management places the responsibility and authority for decisions at the school level and establishes processes which, over time, prepare and support the school-based improvement team to have more responsibility, commitment and authority with respect to important variables and resources.

The amount of literature on school-site management is growing faster than our knowledge of the practice. Moreover, this literature describes such a wide range of management practices that it is difficult to distinguish those components that specifically constitute school-site management. There is not, nor is there likely to be, a proven technology or procedural recipe for designing and implementing school-site management. Experience suggests, however, that there is a set of concepts, processes and enabling conditions that, if configured appropriately, can result in substantial and sustained school improvement.

We address several purposes in this paper. First, we provide a simple framework for thinking about school-site management. In addition to defining the principal concepts, we describe the primary school-site management process components. Second, we furnish descriptions of several approaches to school-site management, approaches that illustrate the diversity of interpretations of the concepts and components in practice. Third, for those contemplating the preparation of a plan for developing a school-site management program, we present several considerations and cautions, drawn from an examination of school-site management approaches in practice. Finally, we recommend several resources and references that can help teachers and administrators design and implement a school-site management program.

The School-Site Management Formula

Fundamental Concepts + Process Components = An Improving School

School-site management is not a new phenomenon. Interest in the practice has waxed and waned over the last decade as educational policy makers have alternately placed the locus of impetus and authority for school improvement at district, state, and even national levels. The most recent attention to the school as the focus of change and improvement efforts is a recognition that a school improvement impetus and authority emanating from outside of the school does not produce the responsibility and commitment necessary to sustain consequential improvement. School-site management is a reaction to the highly centralized (state level) role in reform efforts following A *Nation at Risk* and similar reports. The recent renewed attention to school-site management appears to be motivated as well by several other forces: 1) the increased pressure for accountability which accompanies the substantial increase in resources devoted to education; 2) the growing pressure for the professionalization of teachers; 3) the recognition of the principal as a key figure in most school-based improvement efforts; 4) the influence of the organizational development literature, most focused on the business sector; and 5) the attention to the school effectiveness research and practice.

School-site management is a complex set of concepts and processes described by a virtual cornucopia of new terms. We focus on school- site management's three distinguishing elements: its concepts, processes and outcomes. For each of these constituent elements, we examine particularly those features that distinguish school-site management from other school improvement models. We risk over simplification in compressing so many ideas and practices into so few clusters, but school-site management's complexity and the diversity of its interpretations beg for a simple framework to guide practitioners in their understanding and application of the approach to school improvement.

Approaches to School-Site Management

How do these principles and concepts get translated into practice? How do the central components get configured into a model? The diversity of approaches that exist suggests that each district, often each school, must create its own model of school-site management.

Typically, districts which have adopted school based management: 1) interpret it differently even though they generally subscribe to the same definition; 2) organize for it differently; and 3) practice it differently. Key variables in design and implementation include: a) the degree of decentralized decision-making; b) whether program budgets or school budgets are employed; c) the flexibility of staffing formulas; d) how personnel selection/assignment decisions are made; e) the quality and quantity of community involvement and f) whether the shift to school based management was voluntary, or mandatory.

Typically, a district wishing to initiate a school-site management program takes the following steps:

1) provides orientation sessions on the practice to stakeholders;

2) develops agreements among key stakeholders and stakeholder groups (teachers, principals, school committee, superintendent, and parents);

3) provides incentives for interested schools; and

4) supports the formation and empowerment of school-based teams.

Here are descriptions of seven approaches that represent, but do not exhaust, the range of models that exist.

THE CONNECTICUT SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS PROGRAM

Connecticut State Department of Education
Box 2219
Hartford, CT 06115
Contact: Dr. William Gauthier 203/566/5079

The Connecticut School Effectiveness Program advocates a voluntary, school-based approach that helps a school examine itself in relation to seven school effectiveness characteristics. The process emphasizes building capacity at the school level for team members to analyze gathered data, set priorities, establish action plans, and monitor the achievement of school wide improvement goals.

In elementary and junior high schools, a three-day assessment processes uses (a) a sixty-seven item Connecticut School Effectiveness Interview, administered to all classroom teachers (b) the

Connecticut School Effectiveness Questionnaire, administered to all staff (c) the Achievement Profile, which presents student achievement scores and illustrates similarities and differences among students along social class dimensions and (d) archival data, including handbooks, attendance records, suspension records, vandalism reports, and grade distribution patterns. In high schools, a more detailed questionnaire is used to gather additional information about school climate and equity factors.

The building principal organizes a planning team or steering committee responsible for analyzing data and developing an action plan. During a three-day retreat, elementary planning teams complete initial plans; high school subcommittees develop lists of concerns to be shared with the total staff. Assessment and action planning are usually completed during the first year. Implementation of plans generally requires an additional two years. Central office support for the building-based improvement process is a key ingredient in sustaining the effort and in developing an internal capacity for effective problem-solving.

I/D/E/A SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc. (I/D/E/A)
259 Regency Ridge
Dayton, Ohio 45459
Contact: Dr. John Bahner 513/434/6969

The I/D/E/A School Improvement Program helps schools to learn a systematic problem-solving process to set long-range goals and plan activities to meet identified needs. The emphasis is on training local facilitators and building the capacity of school-based staff to design and implement their own long-range improvement programs. A continuous cycle of dialogue, decision, action, and evaluation is emphasized throughout the improvement process.

Districts have two options: to contract with I/D/E/A for direct technical assistance, or to sponsor I/D/E/A training workshops for district facilitators. The School Improvement Program has five basic steps: readiness, planning, training, implementation, and maintenance. A district planning team composed of representatives from all school groups receives training in five areas: Awareness Building, Team Building, Human Development, Activity Building, and Vision Building.

At a two-day retreat, teams design a vision of their ideal school and identify outcomes to describe how the school should operate along nine dimensions. The vision is then shared with staff and community through involvement sessions planned to stimulate discussions, encourage feedback, and secure participant commitment. Each team member is responsible for communicating with four to five individuals following each planning meeting. Thus, a "pyramid group process" is enacted to ensure communication of progress and objectives. A design task force is created to translate agreed upon objectives and outcomes into action plans. The task force and the planning team share information with the entire school, propose needed staff development activity, and coordinate implementation.

The time line for completion of planning, implementation, and evaluation is approximately fifteen months. The program requires district level support and the willingness of the principal and staff to engage in collaborative planning.

NEA MASTERY IN LEARNING PROJECT

National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20036
Contact: Dr. Robert McLure 202/822/7907

The NEA Mastery in Learning Project schools are in their third year of a pilot effort to develop a national network of schools that can model ways of empowering teachers to respond to national proposals for school-based reform.

Initiating activities are completed in each school. These include conducting a secret ballot to approve participation in the project (at least 75% of the faculty must vote affirmatively), completing a "School Profile" and a "Faculty Inventory" to provide helpful information to guide faculty planning. Once an action priority has been identified, the faculty study group examines current research, tested programs and ideas from the professional literature before taking action. The twenty-six Master-In-Learning Schools each operate via faculty study committees assisted by a site-based consultant (generally affiliated with a university or other helping institution), with informational support - relevant research findings, tested improvement plans from other schools, practical suggestions from recent reform literature - coming from NEA Headquarters in Washington, D. C.

In each of the pilot schools, teachers examine and share information, formulate research questions, establish subcommittees or task forces, and test strategies to meet their identified objectives. The guiding conceptual scheme is deliberately broad and encourages the exploration of alternative solutions to problems associated with teaching, learning, curriculum, and development of school climate.

HIGH SCHOOL IN THE COMMUNITY

New Haven Public Schools
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High School In The Community grew out of teacher-based responses to racial incidents, riots, and protests at James Hillhouse High School in New Haven, Connecticut in 1967. Rejecting the notion that elimination of opportunities for collective action would address serious social problems, a group of faculty proposed an alternative high school structure that would establish "a school of choice" governed by a policy council comprised of teachers, parents, and students.

Since 1970, High School In The Community has operated out of rented storefront property, warehouses, church basements, and other space outside of the traditional public school buildings. The faculty of High School In The Community elect a "facilitator" to serve as administrative leader, meet collectively for two weeks prior to the start of school each year to "set boundaries, policy, and curriculum," and engage in frequent meetings (an average of 2-3 hours per week plus one full evening per month) to discuss issues of integration, remediation, or individual student progress. Approximately 240 students are served by 16 faculty.

Accomplishments of the faculty-governed school include: 1) restructuring of the schedule to provide "block classes" in which students enroll in a class which meets for three hours at a time, five days a week, for nine weeks; 2) non-graded approaches that place students in classes based on their ability levels; 3) interdisciplinary teaching; 4) emphasis on student decision-making, including registering for courses four times a year; 5) attention to conflict resolution through individual counseling, small group discussion, and the required subject "Family Group"; 6) cooperative work-study program with community businesses and service organization.

MASSACHUSETTS COALITION FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

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The Massachusetts Coalition for School Improvement is based on five interrelated premises: (1) reform efforts and priorities for school improvement are best stated in terms of increasing the amount and quality of student learning; (2) the individual school is a powerful unit for change; (3) effective collaboration requires regular work in schools by professors, participation in the university by teachers and administrators, and engagement with each other into common problems; (4) teacher involvement is crucial throughout all phases of the change process; and (5) lasting institutional change requires sustained effort over several years.

Each school in the coalition has put together an improvement team consisting of the principal and at least four to six teachers. Administrators, teachers, and occasionally students and parents discuss strengths and weaknesses in student learning. They gather data about perceived problems and use these data to refine and clarify priorities. These priorities center on improvements in curriculum, instruction, and other school conditions likely to influence student learning.

While the school-based improvement team is recognized as the core agent for change in the building, the Massachusetts Coalition for School Improvement has developed other features that support, sustain, and strengthen the work of teachers and administrators. Representatives from member schools and the University of Massachusetts form Study Teams when there is a need to produce guidelines or to generate information central to the improvement of several schools. The School of Education, through the Center for Curriculum Studies, joins with member district and school staffs to implement Staff Development Seminars for all members of the coalition and for other interested teachers and administrators from school districts throughout Massachusetts. A Schools' Council, composed of superintendents from member school districts and principals and teachers from participating schools have been formed to create policies that will assist the coalition in accomplishing its goals. Advanced graduate students and professors at the Center for Curriculum Studies serve as the Coalition Staff, linking technical and human resources to the improving schools. An Evaluation Team is responsible for devising evaluation procedures and determining the effectiveness of the Coalition. Teachers, administrators, professors, and graduate students also form Inquiry Teams around issues of mutual interest that demand more systematic investigation.

COALITION OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS

Education Department
Brown University
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The Coalition of Essential Schools is an extension of A Study of High Schools conducted under the sponsorship of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Association of Independent Schools. As part of its findings, the Study identified five "imperatives" for better schools 1) providing room for teachers and students to work and learn in their own appropriate ways; 2) insisting that students clearly exhibit mastery of their school work; 3) getting the incentives right for students and teachers; 4) focusing the students' work on the use of their minds; 5) keeping the structure simple and flexible.

Coalition schools adopt no particular "model" of school improvement, and reject the practice of "top-down standardized solutions" to school problems. There are, however, some common principles - certain images of schools as learning places - that mark the Coalition effort. One of these principles is that "teaching and learning should be personalized to the maximum feasible extent." By personalized, Coalition schools mean that students are really known by the adult professionals in the school. In many schools this means restructuring traditional institutional features. Thus, the teacher-pupil ratio may be lowered. The curriculum may be reorganized around fewer integrated domains of inquiry as opposed to many "subjects." The schedule may be modified from seven fifty-minute periods conducted every day, all week, all year to varied "blocks" of time whose content and configuration changes several times during the school year. Another powerful image of school held by the Coalition is the concept of student as worker-and teacher as coach-in which students are helped to learn how to learn and thus teach themselves. A corollary principle is that students must exhibit their grasp of central skills and program goals. Several Coalition schools are currently planning and working toward establishment of a "performance diploma" to be jointly administered by the faculty and higher authorities.

DADE COUNTY SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT/SHARED DECISION-MAKING MODEL

Dade County Public Schools
1450 N. E. Second Avenue
Miami, FL 33129
Contact: Lynn Shenkman 305/376-1355

In a four year pilot program, thirty-two schools have been given more control over how they spend money, allocate staff, and organize instruction. Each school in the pilot program receives a budget based on an allotment of approximately $ 3,411 per student. Under the program, they can carry money over from one year to the next. Even within categorical programs where state and federal mandates limit local discretion, the schools have received as much autonomy as possible. The funds can be spent to purchase equipment, utilities, or staff - or to hire instructional aides instead of an assistant principal. Both the school board and the teacher's union have agreed to waive district regulations and contract provisions in this experiment. The school board has suspended requirements regarding maximum class size, length of the school day, number of minutes per subject, and when report cards should be handed out. The union has allowed teachers to give up planning periods, work longer hours for no pay, and engage in peer evaluation programs.

The kinds of solutions proposed by schools in the pilot effort vary considerably. Some schools have opened on Saturdays; others have added before and after school programs. Several are trying alternatives to the traditional staffing patterns: hiring aides instead of an assistant principal; employing teachers by the hour; creating new positions such as discipline manager or enrichment coordinator. At Bunche Park Elementary School, a developmental program for five-year olds includes a monthly "hands-on" workshop for parents. Kendale Elementary School has restructured its curriculum to provide "block scheduling" of academic classes in the morning and enrichment classes in the afternoon. Sunset Senior High School in Miami has added a thirty-five minute "teacher-as-advisor" program in the middle of the school day by reducing each class period by five minutes.

The pilot program has experienced some rocky moments. The district office provided few explicit guidelines about how the management structure should operate. Few people could say with certainty where the principal's role began and where the teacher's responsibilities ended. Some teachers balked at assuming responsibility for custodial duties, buying supplies, or handling parents who came in with complaints. The process of achieving consensus has also proven to be time consuming. Creating open lines of communication has been difficult in some schools, particularly for junior and senior high schools in the program. Both teachers and principals express the need for more training in budgeting, conflict resolution, conducting group meetings, and arriving at consensus.

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It's hot

School-based management lets principals slice the budget pie

BY RICHARD G. NEAL

NOTHING IS MORE frustrating to a principal than finding out that $10,000 is languishing in the budget, earmarked for repaving the school parking lot, but that it's impossible to dig up $5,000 for a desperately needed remedial program.

Such budgetary nonsense occurs because principals—who know better than anyone what their schools' priorities are—too seldom have any say over how limited school funds are spent. Instead, it is the central office—distant both geographically and, sometimes, philosophically—that dictates individual school budgets.

That's why the Prince William County (Virginia) Public Schools (K-12; enr.: 40,000) are turning to school-based management—an administrative system that gives principals the authority to draw up their own school budgets. The system is the brainchild of Superintendent Edward Kelly, who says, "We want our students to get the best education possible, and we know that the principal is in the best position to guarantee that school funds are spent wisely to meet this goal."

Admittedly, not everyone is comfortable with the idea of giving building administrators more autonomy. And that can create problems: Granting principals control over their budgets means taking budget authority away from the central office staff, a move that can lead to bad feelings and messy office politics. Also, introducing school-based management isn't easy: It takes long hours of planning, in-service training for administrators, and a real commitment from the superintendent and school board. (Our board has given us its full support.)

But considering the growing demands being placed on today's schools, can any school executive risk the improper allocation of scarce educational resources? We think not. We believe the move to school-based management is our best hope for improving our schools.

Taking the plunge

Not so long ago, the idea of giving our principals any autonomy at all seemed farfetched. Our schools operated under a highly centralized, if not somewhat autocratic, system of administration during much of the 1980s. It was only in 1987—when growing opposition to this centralized control coincided with the arrival of a new superintendent—that we gave serious thought to a new approach.

Our first step was to form a 12-person task force whose members were drawn from all rungs of the administrative ladder. Its charge: to undertake an extensive study of school-based management, a job that involved long hours of research and travel to other school systems. After several months, the task force submitted a report to the superintendent recommending a two-year pilot program involving five schools. (Since then, our superintendent has mandated that all 56 of the county's schools will move to school-based management by July 1990.)

The pilot program began this school year. Here's how it works, in a nutshell: The principals of the five pilot schools were given their pro-rata share of the school system's budget and left free to allocate funds as they saw fit. It was their responsibility to hire employes, arrange to have their buildings cleaned, pay utility bills, and allocate instructional funds as necessary to provide a solid education for students. And they had the money in hand to carry out these responsibilities.

This approach has several advantages: Not only can principals allocate limited resources where they're most needed, but they now have a greater incentive to save money. After all, when the central office pays the utility bills, principals don't much care if someone leaves the ceiling lights on. But when they can keep any savings on their electric bills and plow them back into school programs, they're likely to start a conservation drive.

Also, because we require principals to seek the advice of parents and teachers when drawing up budgets, more people are likely to believe they have a stake in the programs that have been given priority. And that, we hope, will mean a greater chance of success for those programs.

Of course, we first had to determine how much money to allocate to the pilot schools. For several months, we reviewed dozens of individual budgets for instruction, maintenance, security, personnel, and other school functions. We put some funds aside for transportation, food service, and the central office, but we divvied up the rest of the pot on a per-child basis and allocated the appropriate share to each school. (Some funds also were allocated on the basis of such factors as school size and student turnover.) School-site budgets ranged from $1.3 million for

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Richard G. Neal is director of school-based management for the Prince William County (Virginia) Public Schools.

a small elementary school to \$9.5 million for a high school.

Although we gave principals a remarkable degree of budgetary freedom, we didn't distribute the school system's hard-won tax dollars without some oversight. Principals must submit budget plans outlining how they will spend their funds. But they cannot develop these plans without first discussing school priorities with an advisory committee consisting of teachers, parents, and (at the principal's option) students. We don't require principals to follow the committees' recommendations, but we do remind them of the importance of staff and community support—and of the fact that committee members are a well-informed resource on what students need.

Moreover, each school's budget must abide by state regulations, accreditation standards, school board policies, and administrative regulations (the latter two can be waived with prior approval). Once the budgets are submitted, central office and instructional personnel review them for major problems or omissions. But the central office cannot tinker with the principals' decisions. Only the superintendent and the director of school-based management can insist on changes.

Finally, we make it clear that principals accept their newfound freedom at the price of increased accountability. No longer can principals blame the central office when funds aren't available to shore

But some principals feel threatened

POPULAR AS IT IS these days, school-based management (see main article) isn't universally welcome in U.S. school systems. Fact is, some principals break out in a cold sweat at the very thought, fearing they will be forced to surrender power to teachers and parents or be held to a level of accountability that is beyond them.

"Many principals are extraordinarily threatened," says Benjamin Troutman, a student of school-based management who is director of curriculum and staff development for the Virginia Beach (Virginia) Public Schools. "Most principals see themselves as captains of their ships, and their ships have been under ironclad rule. Now that's changing."

Ironically, one of the greatest fears for many principals arises from their apparent loss of authority under school-based management. In seeking to give local schools more control over their budgets, many school boards build in mechanisms to tap the expertise of teachers and the support of parents. And that leaves some principals asking, "Who exactly will be in charge?"

Undeniably, the specter of mobs of teachers and parents demanding to take over the school is enough to scare any principal. But people who are familiar with school-based management note that most programs simply call for giving the school community a greater advisory role—not outright control. Such is the case in the Sarasota County (Florida) Public Schools.

"In Florida, only one individual in a school is held accountable," says Brian Fitz-Harris, a principal assisting with Sarasota County's school-based management plan. "The principal by law is in authority. We have no process where there is a question of a vote being taken."

According to Fitz-Harris, the principals who have the worst time with school-based management are the old-timers—school executives who have spent their entire careers under an authoritarian system that gave them little autonomy and little experience with collaborative planning.

Principals' fears are fueled partly by the "blatant political actions of teacher unions that call for greater teacher empowerment," Troutman says. "There's been a systematic attack on management: 'Let's get the principals out of the way and put the teachers in charge.' That's why it's so important to spell out the role of teachers in the decision-making process."

In fact, according to Troutman, inviting teachers and parents to help plan school priorities gives the principal an opportunity to build consensus and support for school objectives—thereby increasing his authority. "What I've found is that as you give responsibility and power to people, it comes right back to you in support of goals and missions and school outcomes," Troutman says.

Another worry is the changing relationship with the central office that school-based management implies. With increased autonomy comes increased accountability, Troutman points out, and many principals aren't thrilled at the idea of being held even more responsible for student achievement.

Some concern is valid, especially if principals are judged by what Troutman calls the "box-office mentality of standardized test scores." School executives must refuse to be judged by a single, simplistic yardstick, he says. "Part of the job of the principal is to communicate a broader view of outcomes. Are kids happy? Are they excited about learning? Are they checking out more library books? These outcomes are terribly important."

Some of these fears can be allayed if the school system embarks on an extensive training program, Troutman says. Also important is a fair evaluation system to reassure principals that increased accountability does not mean they'll be left out on a limb.

Finally, school systems adopting school-based management should limit initial involvement to those principals who are attracted to the concept of increased autonomy and control over their schools' budgets, says Gerald Dreyfuss, assistant superintendent for school-based management for the Dade County (Florida) Public Schools. "We're not forcing principals to do this," he says. "What [Dade County's school-based management plan] does is offer them the opportunity to be innovative, to have exciting schools."

Of course, some principals always will resist the opportunity to carve out a larger role in school affairs. "Site-based management is pretty threatening to weak principals," Troutman says. "A weak principal is threatened by everything—by strong central office control, as well."

And for those principals, it seems, the choice might simply be to sink or swim.

—Del Stover

up student reading scores. Now that principals can allocate money where it's needed, they're expected to produce good students.

Only months into the pilot program, we're already seeing principals taking some innovative steps they wouldn't have been able to take otherwise. At one elementary school, for example, the principal has hired additional tutors to help students in mathematics and language arts, and he's also stretched his budget to cover the purchase of $13,000 worth of additional computer equipment.

Yet change hasn't come easily. Burdened by the additional budget work school-based management requires and uneasy about the accountability it places on them, principals have been somewhat conservative in their initial budgets. Experimentation has been limited, and we suspect that principals will move slowly to recast school programs in line with their own ideals. But we also know change is coming, and we look forward to seeing our principals gain confidence and take greater chances in tackling the unique problems of their schools.

In the meantime, we're preparing for 1990. Our pilot program is teaching us valuable lessons that we hope will allow us to avoid major problems when the entire school system changes to school-based management. And all 150 members of our administrative staff are participating in regular in-service training to teach them budgeting techniques and ready them for increased autonomy. We don't have much time.

Lessons we learned

Our pilot program has taught us a few lessons that will make our systemwide reorganization in July 1990 a little easier. And we believe these lessons will hold true anywhere:

☐ *Make a firm commitment.* Let's be blunt. When you give principals authority over the budget, you're taking power away from your central office staff. Some people will resent the change, and unless your commitment (and that of the school board) is firm and forcefully made known, you might have to deal with subordinates who try to sabotage budget changes or make end-runs around you to the school board.

In Prince William County, we've taken firm steps to avoid this problem. First, school executives and board members conducted lengthy and candid talks about the wisdom of the reorganization while it was in the planning stages. In approving the plan, we all agreed that its success depended on support from everyone and that anyone who couldn't support the new approach should seek new opportunities elsewhere.

Second, we appointed a director of school-based management to oversee the pilot program. The director has full authority to resolve any conflicts that arise over control of the budget—an important step in preventing central office staffers from seeking to keep funds out of the principals' hands. Only the superintendent can overrule the director.

☐ *Seek out a qualified consultant.* You're asking for trouble if you attempt to tackle radical school reorganization without experienced help. A new budget process must be put in place, school advisory committees must be formed, and your administrative staff must learn to deal with new responsibilities. It takes experience to know what pitfalls to avoid and what shortcuts to take.

YOUR VERDICT, PLEASE

You might find this article controversial. Let us and your colleagues from across North America know your reactions. Turn to the reader reply card next to page 8, and give us your verdict. We'll publish a roundup of the results in a later issue of THE EXECUTIVE EDUCATOR.

We sought the assistance of Michael Strembitsky, superintendent of the Edmonton (Alberta) Public Schools, who introduced school-based management to his school system. In regular visits, he's shown us how to build a consensus for the plan and avoid resistance from central office staff, helped teach principals about budgeting, and generally guided us through the complex process of reorganization. Ask around, and you'll come across a number of good consultants.

☐ *Be willing to accept mistakes.* When the central office makes all the decisions, principals know where to point fingers when something goes wrong. But when they're suddenly called upon to be accountable for students' academic achievement, principals are intimidated and likely to tread slowly. To promote initiative and experimentation, you've got to make it clear that you'll view the occasional stumble with an open mind.

At the same time, it's a good idea to review principals' budgets just to be on the safe side. You also might warn school executives where potential problems lie. For example, as a precaution, we made it clear to principals that it would be a serious mistake to use unallocated funds to redecorate their offices.

☐ *Recognize that collective bargaining changes the rules.* Because Virginia law forbids collective bargaining, our school system has a number of advantages when experimenting with school-based management. But in states where unions and labor contracts place restrictions on school executives' options, serious obstacles could arise to any plan that grants principals additional power over hiring or instructional programs.

Such obstacles must be dealt with as they arise. Obviously, union officials won't take kindly to any plan that means teachers are treated differently from school to school. But you can make a strong argument for your proposal: School-based management might mean differential treatment for teachers, but it also gives them something they've always wanted—a voice in how the school is run. With a little give and take, you should be able to resolve most objections.

☐ *Outline the central office's role.* Critics of school-based management often claim that the loss of central authority will lead to chaos. But under school-based management, the administrative system doesn't disappear: The board continues to set policy, and the superintendent retains ultimate administrative authority.

Some reassurance to the central office staff will be necessary, though. You must explain that although you're relieving some people of their budget authority, they'll still play an important role in the school system. In our schools, for example, our instructional supervisor for mathematics still formulates the curriculum, monitors the success of each school's math instruction, and helps principals organize their schools' math programs. And central office administrators still supervise such centralized functions as pupil transportation and food service.

☐ *Accompany autonomy with accountability.* To succeed, any school-based management plan must hold principals accountable for their performance. We've come up with a three-pronged approach: First, we hold principals accountable for student achievement as measured by standardized tests. A principal whose school's test scores are poor will have a tough time explaining why he's spending additional money on extracurricular activities. Second, we survey students, parents, and employes on a variety of issues. These people know what's right and wrong with their schools, and their responses give us an indication of where our attention is needed. Finally, once our systemwide reorganization goes into effect, each principal will be under the direct supervision of an area associate superintendent, who can rely on day-by-day observations to evaluate the principal's success.

No one expects our administrative reorganization to result in radical improvements to the Prince William County schools. But early indications are that giving principals budget authority will mean greater flexibility in dealing with each school's individual needs—and we hope that translates into a better education for our students.

And although it's too early to tell whether school-based management is the wave of the future, we feel confident that this untraditional management system is the answer to our needs right now. A number of other U.S. school systems seem to have the same idea. Who knows? Perhaps you'll be next.

If you would like more information about our school-based management effort, please write me at the Prince William County Public Schools, P.O. Box 389, Manassas, Va. 22110, or call 703/791-8707. ■

How do you rate this article? Please turn to the reply card facing page 22 and circle 106 if you think it's excellent, 107 if you think it's good, and 108 if you think it's poor. Thanks.

What's cooking in school-based management

SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT (see main article) is moving from rhetoric to reality in school systems throughout the U.S., especially among school executives who are familiar with the findings of effective schools research. And although educators have been paying lip service to the school-based management notion for years, now a number of school systems are putting their money where the principal's office is.

Here's what's happening on the school-based management front in a few selected school systems:

☐ *Dade County (Florida) Public Schools (PK-12; enr.: 265,000).* In the nation's fourth-largest school system, cooperation between school executives and union leaders has led to a school-based management program now being used on a voluntary basis by 33 county schools.

Under the program, a school decision-making committee consisting of teachers and the principal is responsible for developing academic priorities and drawing up a budget that addresses each school's needs. Although principals can veto the committee's decisions, local school executives say many principals have voluntarily relinquished their veto in favor of decisions based on persuasion and consensus building.

According to Gerald Dreyfuss, assistant superintendent for school-based management, participating schools are given great latitude even in management matters that usually are off-limits—including teacher pay, fringe benefits, and peer evaluation. So far, school committees have reallocated funds to increase teacher stipends, develop a lead teacher program, and contract with an outside firm to teach Spanish.

The school board is hoping to expand the program next year on a volunteer basis, says Dreyfuss, adding that no school can participate in the plan without the approval of the principal and two-thirds of the faculty. "We don't want an up-down approach," he says. "We're not forcing principals to do this."

☐ *Savannah-Chatham County (Georgia) Public Schools (K-12; enr.: 33,000).* This school system is starting small but planning to expand its school-based management plan quickly. In the 1989-90 school year, 50 principals will be given control of from $5 million to $10 million out of a total budget expected to exceed $150 million. And the school-based share of the budget pie is expected to increase in future years.

Under a plan that will take three years to implement fully, principals will begin by assuming control over ten funding categories, including in-service training, instructional supplies, and staff travel, says Assistant Superintendent for Finance Bill Leonard. In addition, school executives will have authority to transfer funds from one category to another as needed.

Principals will hold ultimate authority over budget requests, but Leonard says the central office staff has emphasized the importance of working closely with department chairmen and other staff members. "We've encouraged principals in our comments and training sessions to involve personnel," he says. "And the overwhelming majority are doing so."

Greater autonomy for principals also is expected to lead to a reorganization of the central office. According to Leonard, instructional supervisors and subject area coordinators will be spending more time in schools in an advisory and reviewing role, as opposed to dictating from the central office.

☐ *Sarasota County (Florida) Public Schools (K-12; enr.: 26,000).* Budget and staffing requests for the 1989-90 school year currently are being developed by principals, teachers, and parents at all 36 of the county's schools, says Brian Fitz-Harris, a principal assisting with Sarasota's new school-based management program.

The half-completed reorganization relies heavily on cooperation between principals and two school committees. The first is a school advisory board, made up of parents and usually a teacher representative, which will help the principal determine school priorities, including budget and staff allocations.

The second committee is a school management team—staffed mainly by teachers—that is expected to assist the principal in dealing with instructional matters and day-to-day school issues (such as a rash of vandalism) and recommending school policies (such as penalties against vandals). The team also is expected to help develop a school improvement plan, a board-mandated report in which schools specify how they will deal with their unique academic or social problems.

As currently proposed, Sarasota's school-based management plan will allocate funds to schools on a per-pupil basis, but school executives hope one day to create a waiver system through which board policy or contractual agreements could be put aside for sound educational reasons. Says Fitz-Harris: "We envision down the road a time where almost anything is possible."

—Del Stover

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March 1988.

How To Diagnose School Climate: Pinpointing Problems, Planning Change

School climate assessments are valuable tools for principals. Climate assessments by themselves will solve no problems, but they are useful goads to action that help keep program development on the right track. Some steps to take in planning such an improvement program are outlined here, and in the article by Rachel and Myers that follows.

BY GARY D. GOTTFREDSON AND JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD

SCHOOL CLIMATE, like the climate of any other organization, determines whether the school can achieve excellence or will flounder ineffectively. A school with high levels of disorder, low morale, and poor cooperation between teachers and administrators cannot be a good place to learn or teach. And such a school is bound to have a poor public image.

Simply reiterating such truisms about school climate—as recent advocates of educational reform have repeatedly done—provides no help for the principal who is attempting to improve the climate in his or her school. That principal needs sensitive measures of school climate to diagnose problems and monitor progress in overcoming them.

GARY D. GOTTFREDSON and JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD are research scientists, Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Assessing School Climate

Researchers at the Johns Hopkins University developed the Effective School Battery (ESB) to meet schools' needs for objective measures of school climate (Gottfredson, 1985). The ESB uses surveys of students and teachers to produce a comprehensive portrait of a school's strengths and weaknesses.

The ESB produces climate profiles to diagnose problems, suggest improvement ideas, and monitor progress. The profiles tell how safe a school is, whether morale is high or low, whether students and teachers find the school a

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Ed. Note: NASSP has recently developed a Comprehensive Assessment of School Environments (CASE), a battery of surveys designed to measure school climate and parent, teacher, and student satisfaction. For purchase information, write Publications Sales, NASSP, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, Va. 22091.

pleasant place to be, and whether there is tension between administrators and teachers. In all, the ESB describes the school in terms of 34 specific aspects of school climate and teacher and student characteristics.

The work to develop this tool for assessing the climates of schools originated in 1978 when the climates of 642 schools were analyzed to learn what makes some schools orderly and others disorderly (Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 1985). It was concluded that the clarity and fairness of schools' rules and cooperation between teachers and principals in planning for school improvement were key in producing an orderly environment. That research implied that these and other aspects of school climate could be measured to help schools diagnose themselves and plan for improvement in needed areas.

No administrator should devote student and faculty time to school climate assessment unless he or she plans to use the results.

To test the idea that schools could use climate assessments as a planning and evaluation tool, we teamed up with schools implementing improvement programs. School principals, teachers, and other program planners worked with us to specify the features of school climate and student outcomes that needed to be assessed. Surveys were conducted in schools in 1981, 1982, and 1983, in which students and teachers described themselves and their schools. These surveys collected and averaged the observations of many teachers and many students to ensure that the results did not reflect the idiosyncratic biases in the perceptions of a few individuals.

Each year analyses were performed to assess the reliability and validity of the features of schools measured by these surveys. These analyses were used to improve the dependability of the portraits of the schools produced by the ESB and to provide insight into the meanings of the resulting climate measures. And each year, principals, teachers, and other program planners critically scrutinized their own schools' climate assessment results to focus their improvement efforts where they were most needed, assess the progress they were making, and advise on needed revisions in the content and format of the ESB. Technical details of the results of this work are documented in a *User's Manual* (Gottfredson, 1985).

An Illustration

Figure 1 shows how the ESB was used to diagnose one school's climate problems. This is a junior high school in trouble. This urban school is located in a working class area. Last year one student was shot to death in this school, and carrying weapons in the school is commonplace. Fights occur all the time. Typical daily attendance is low.

An incident—most people called it a riot—occurred here a few years ago, and central administrators and community members alike fear more trouble. Students, and young people who are not students, roam throughout the school virtually at will. Staff turnover is high. Many teachers put in for a transfer each year.

The school's teacher psychosocial climate profile summarizes what teachers say about the school. It shows that both safety and morale are very low. The profile suggests that morale is a major problem. This interpretation is reinforced by the high staff turnover rate mentioned earlier.

The low morale score suggests that it will probably be very difficult to work with the staff in school improvement programs, but the low safety scale and

Figure 1

School Psychosocial Climate Teacher Reports

Measure	Percentile	Very Low	Low	Moderately Low	Average	Moderately High	High	Very High
Safety	1	X						
Morale	6		X					
Planning & Action	7		X					
Smooth Administration	23			X				
Resources	31				X			
Race Relations	42				X			
Parent/Community Involvement	33				X			
Student Influence	11		X					
Avoidance of the Use of Grades as a Sanction	2	X						

Improvement Needed — Very Good

School Psychosocial Climate Student Reports

Measure	Percentile	Very Low	Low	Moderately Low	Average	Moderately High	High	Very High
Safety	1		X					
Respect for Students	26			X				
Planning and Action	10		X					
Fairness of Rules	46				X			
Clarity of Rules	67				X			
Student Influence	40				X			

Improvement Needed — Very Good

School Population Teacher Characteristics

Measure	Percentile	Very Low	Low	Moderately Low	Average	Moderately High	High	Very High
Pro-Integration Attitude	50				X			
Job Satisfaction	2	X						
Interaction with Students	41				X			
Personal Security	11		X					
Classroom Orderliness	9		X					
Professional Development	14		X					
Nonauthoritarian Attitudes	30			X				

Improvement Needed — Very Good

School Population Student Characteristics

Measure	Percentile	Very Low	Low	Moderately Low	Average	Moderately High	High	Very High
Parental Education	56				X			
Positive Peer Associations	52				X			
Educational Expectation	60				X			
Social Integration	5	X						
Attachment to School	47				X			
Belief in Rules	51				X			
Interpersonal Competency	26			X				
Involvement	24			X				
Positive Self-Concept	50				X			
School Effort	31				X			
Avoidance of Punishment	6	X						
School Rewards	22			X				

Improvement Needed — Very Good

the generally low elevation of the entire profile imply that a school improvement program is desperately needed. None of the teacher psychosocial climate scales is above average, and three of the more specific climate measures are in the low or very low range.

The pattern seen in this profile suggests inaction rather than conflict between faculty and administration. The planning and action score is low, suggesting that little effort is expended on school improvement activities. The school's principal will be key in getting this school on the move in this area.

The student psychosocial climate profile summarizes what students say about the school. It confirms the interpretation that this school is a relatively uncomfortable place. Of the two general climate scales, safety is in the low range, and respect for students is in the moderately low range. Like teachers, students see little action: the planning and action score is low.

The profile of teacher population characteristics is marked by very low job satisfaction, and by low scores on personal security, classroom orderliness, and professional development.

The profile of student characteristics shows that the parents of these students are about as educated as parents in the average school. The most striking features of the profile of student characteristics are the very low score on social integration and the very low score on avoidance of punishment. The average student is apparently alienated and often punished. Other evidence confirms that students are often punished—there were 84 disciplinary removals (informal suspensions for up to three days) per 100 students in the year the school was assessed.

Taken together, the profiles for our illustrative school imply that this school has multiple problems, that staff members are demoralized, and that students are alienated. Any principal trying to improve this school's climate will have to kindle a fire under the staff, set priorities for beginning school improvements, and achieve at least some small early successes to convince people that something can be done to improve matters. The principal should consider inviting a change facilitator to help get this process started.

When these profiles were discussed with the school staff, teachers named discipline as the number one problem. And although the student psychosocial climate profile suggested that clarity of the rules was at the high end of the average range, discussions with teachers and administrators revealed that *they* did not agree on what the rules were.

Using Climate Assessments To Plan Improvement

No administrator should devote student and faculty time to school climate assessment unless he or she plans to use the results. And everyone concerned with the assessment should understand why the assessment is occurring. Usually, a school or school system sees a need to collect information about itself to determine priorities for programs, assess progress toward educational objectives, or evaluate school improvement programs.

A principal using ESB profiles to plan for school improvement should understand three essential points. First, the management of schools and educational programs requires the concerted action of many people, and therefore requires leadership. A leader must take the initiative to formulate plans, implement programs, and assess progress. Research (Hord, Stiegelbauer, and Hall, 1984) implies that the leader is usually the principal or a second change facilitator. The principal or facilitator must use the best information available about the school and its educational programs in this process.

Second, the ESB profiles will provide useful information that should be interpreted in the context of other information about the school: the kind of community the school is in, evidence about student and staff attendance, student academic achievement, budgets, and the experience and enthusiasm of the faculty.

Two examples illustrate how this other information is useful:

- If attendance records show low student or staff attendance to be a problem, then the ESB results should help understand the *causes* of the problem. The attendance data will help provide a focus for the interpretation of climate information.
- Information from direct observations (as in the example described earlier where it was apparent that school staff members did not agree among themselves about what the school rules were) sometimes confirms and sometimes disconfirms hypotheses about the school suggested by the climate results. ESB profiles provide information that extends, but should not supplant, other kinds of data available about schools.

A thorough school assessment will integrate all the available information about a school. Detailed examples of how such information can be integrated to produce an understanding of a school are provided by Gottfredson (1985, Chapter 8).

Third, the development and management of school improvement is a continuing process, not a one-shot event. Information about the school should be used in long-range planning, and plans should be periodically reviewed to determine if they are still appropriate and if objectives are still being achieved (Gottfredson, 1984).

Climate assessment often stimulates planning for school improvement, but nothing will happen unless people in the school act on the information over a period of years, not days. There is no magic in this process of summarizing information. ESB profiles will not solve a school's problems or reveal magic solutions to them. They will point the way toward needed change.

Steps to Planning School Improvement

1. Diagnosis.

Use a climate assessment to pinpoint the school's most important problems, and try to determine why the problems exist. If, for example, a climate profile implies that school safety is low, search the profiles and ask probing questions to find the causes.

Are the school's rules clear to teachers and students? Is there much teacher-administrator tension? Is morale so low that few people feel they can count on others in the school to help them improve discipline?

2. Formulate goals and objectives.

Be specific about the changes in school climate you want to bring about. Base your goals and objectives on the diagnosis. If your diagnosis is that the school is unsafe because of a lack of clear rules and firm rule enforcement, your goal might be to increase safety by making sure the rules are understood by all and consistently and fairly enforced.

3. Examine the research on potential programs.

Avoid the trap of plunging into a new program just because it sounds like a good idea. Make sure the programs you put in place are clearly and directly aimed at your goals and objectives and have been shown to bring these objectives about in other schools. In general, a program that someone has devoted time and energy to developing is a better bet than an untried program.

Typically, the programs that are your best bets have at least some of the following characteristics:

- Evaluation reports are available in the educational literature
- Detailed manuals describe how to implement the program and tell what it takes in terms of personnel, time, money, and material to implement
- The program is in operation and can be viewed
- Qualified trainers can help you get the program implemented
- You can implement the program with existing staff and resources.

Your search for potential programs should produce at least two or three that meet these criteria.

4. Identify obstacles and resources.

When you introduce innovation, you are changing the status quo in your school. For a while, some things become harder to do, and other things become easier. You must develop a concrete plan that everyone agrees is feasible and that will enable you to cope with the obstacles identified. This analysis of obstacles and resources may reveal that one program is more feasible than another and help you choose among programs.

5. Make a formal plan for school improvement.

Once you have specified goals and objectives, identified obstacles and resources that will influence your program, and selected a previously tested intervention, you are ready to make a formal plan for action. The plan should specify clearly what resources will be used to overcome obstacles, and who is responsible for taking what steps by when.

6. Specify quality control standards.

Saying you have a program is not the same as having one (Sarason, 1971). You must be specific about new policies and procedures. For instance, if you are putting new discipline procedures in place, clearly state the action expected in response to specific offenses. Of course, guidelines may not apply in every instance, so quality control standards might specify that disciplinary actions will accord with the guidelines, say, 80 percent of the time.

Evaluating School Improvement

Evaluation is activity to determine what was done and what happened as a result. No school improvement program is complete without evaluation.

Once you have made plans using the steps described, knowing what was done is a snap. Were the steps the plan spelled out actually taken? Were the guidelines for the innovation followed?

Do not wait for a year or even for months to perform this kind of evaluation. Do it all the time. If important steps are not being taken, act to keep your program on track. If guidelines or program standards are not being followed, find out why and take corrective action.

And the climate assessment that you used to formulate the initial diagnosis of the school's problems is a ready-made tool for learning if the new program is effective. Annual climate assessment is a straightforward way to chart progress and demonstrate the effectiveness of your school's new programs. If safety was identified as a problem, and the diagnosis implied that clarity of rules contributed to a lack of safety, then improvements in both safety and rule clarity should be visible in the results of a new climate assessment.

If your program is effective, the results will be clear for everyone to see. If the climate assessment results show little improvement, you may have to beef up the program or substitute another more effective program.

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Human Decision Making

People opt for certainty instead of risk, but are willing to take risks to avoid losses, according to psychologists Daniel Kahneman of the University of California at Berkeley and Amos Tversky of Stanford.

This finding is based largely on answers subjects gave to two questions. When asked whether they favored a 100 percent chance to win $3,000 or an 80 percent chance to win $4,000, the majority went with the $3,000.

However, when asked whether they would choose a certain loss of $3,000 or an 80 percent chance of losing $4,000 and a 20 percent chance of losing nothing, most people gambled on the second choice. Although it was riskier, they feared certain loss even more than they feared risk.

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A Plan for Principals: School Supervision That Works

This writer offers a supervision plan designed to help identify teaching deficiencies, assist in planning and managing improvement, and, most important, create situations in which dialog about the need for improvement will occur between the principal and the teacher.

By Neal J. Powell

THERE ARE MANY ways in which a principal provides influence to a school—as disciplinarian, as educational leader, as curriculum coordinator, as PR person, as counselor, as teacher of teachers, etc. Often a good principal provides direction for a school through sheer force of character and dedication to personal values. All these roles are important. I submit, however, that the most effective way to improve education is by helping teachers improve their skills, abilities, and behaviors through effective supervision.

The following factors must come into play if a principal is to influence the intellectual improvement of teachers:

1. The principal must function as leader of the school. This does not mean that a principal will work with each individual or situation in the same way. Teachers are individuals, with varying levels of autonomy and skill, and with different personal learning (and teaching) styles. We have all studied Theory X and Theory Y styles of leadership. It is realistic to expect the effective leader to be neither X nor Y, but to be able to use the appropriate style as the situation demands.
2. A definite plan for supervision (and evaluation) must be established. This plan should be developed in advance, since implementation of the plan will probably begin with your first letter of greeting in August. The key to any effective supervision plan is effective and sometimes courageous *communication*.
3. A staff development program must mesh with and reflect the supervision plan.
4. Priority must be given to the supervision plan. There is always a time shortage. If the overall supervision plan is deemed important by the principal, how-

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ever, time must be blocked out for supervision and that time must be protected.

A Plan for Supervision

Yearly Goal Setting

In August, send each teacher a form asking him or her to identify one or more areas for personal improvement during the coming school year.

After the beginning-of-the-year rush is over, have a short meeting with each teacher to discuss ways in which he or she might work toward improvement in the area identified. You should discuss ways in which you can help, and review resources that are available.

These goals provide a basis for meaningful communication throughout the school year. If time allows during an observation conference, for example, you can begin by discussing progress toward the yearly goals identified in the fall.

You might want to clip the goal statements to the inside cover of your working file for each teacher for easy reference. You cannot open that file without being reminded of his or her goals for improvement.

A Formal Observation Process

Try to observe each teacher formally at least twice each year. In this situation, the teacher has foreknowledge of your visit and you are fully informed of the objectives and strategies planned for the lesson. Realize that while formal visits of this nature show most teachers at their best, they show others at their worst. Informal "pop in" visits are important to complete the picture.

Even though it may seem cumbersome at times, your formal observation process should include three phases: a pre-observation conference, observation with notation of objective data, and a post-observation conference.

The pre-observation conference is arranged by appointment with the teacher, usually the day before the lesson is to be observed. Begin by attempting to put the teacher at ease, perhaps by encouraging discussion of his or her perspective on progress being made toward yearly goals.

Ask the teacher to describe the planned lesson. You should discuss the lesson objectives, planned learning activities, likely degree of student success, anticipated problems, and methods of obtaining feedback and evaluation. You might wish to complete a pre-observation worksheet similar to that shown in Figure 1 for reference during the observation.

It is good to remind the teacher at this point that your goal is to be an informed resource for feedback and improvement.

It is best if the formal observation covers an entire class period; if not, it should last at least 30 minutes. Instruct your office to interrupt you during formal observations only in cases of emergency.

Enter the classroom between classes and sit unobtrusively in the back of the room in time to observe the beginning of class activities. The degree of efficiency with which a teacher begins class can have a very strong effect on the overall tone of the class period.

Be sure to record the exact time you enter the room and the time you leave. Record objective data you hear or observe (try to avoid using your own feelings or impressions) on an observation worksheet. The one shown (Figure 2) includes examples of typical data notations made during an observation.

Notice that the observer has recorded many teacher statements which provide opportunity for participation. On the diagram of the room you can place a check for each specific interaction with a student so that you can look for patterns of exclusion such as the traditional "T" effect. Also record suggestions or possible topics of discussion as they occur to you.

Figure 1
Pre-Observation Conference Worksheet

Subject ____________________ Teacher ____________________
Visit Time ____________________ Visit Date ____________________

1. Objectives:

2. Strategies/Learning Activities:

3. Materials:

4. Anticipated Outcomes:

5. Anticipated Problems:

6. Feedback/Evaluation/Monitoring:

7. Other:

Figure 2
Observation Worksheet

Name ____________ Date ________
Time In _____ Time Out__________
Class ____________________

Objectives

Learning Activities/Strategies

Materials Used

Preparation for Class/Anticipatory Set

Opportunity for Participation

Learning/Interest Centers

Classroom Control

Monitoring/Adjusting

Reinforcement

Suggestions

Student Initiative

Feeling Tone

Indiv. of Instruction

Current Application of Subject Matter

Question Distribution

It is important that you not allow yourself to become involved in the lesson or drawn into discussion in any way while conducting a formal observation.

After the observation refer to the pre-observation form and the observation data to write a narrative report of the observation. This report might be as short as two paragraphs or as long as several pages. It will restate the objectives of the lesson, might discuss activities observed, and should express your judgment as to how well the objectives were achieved.

It should list aspects of the lesson that you observed to be exemplary or exciting as well as aspects of the lesson that point to the need for adjustment or improvement. For each topic identified as a need for improvement you should include one or more suggestions for accomplishing that improvement.

It is very important that you have the courage to be objective and critical as necessary when writing this report. While much can be done to soften constructive criticism by expressing it in the most positive manner possible and by including honest praise as well, it is important that deficiencies and weaknesses in teaching behavior be documented and opened up for discussion.

The post-observation conference can be the most important phase of the formal observation. If important deficiencies have been noted and expressed in the report, they must be discussed. This is where a principal's commitment to improvement is tested.

You might begin this conference by asking the teacher how he or she felt about the lesson. Did it go as planned? Were there any surprises? And if so, how were they dealt with?

Problems should be addressed in the most positive terms possible, and a portion of the discussion should be devoted to a description of the things the teacher is doing well.

The discussion of each area needing improvement should include suggestions for improvement, offers to help, and a discussion of resources available such as inservice, visits to other classrooms, availability of other administrators, etc.

Agreement should be reached on necessary follow-up activities. The interview might close with discussion of conferences or classes the teacher has attended recently or would like to attend in the future. You might also ask the teacher about his or her professional goals.

An Informal Observation Process

Not all observation can take place in a formal, pre-arranged setting. Often a principal can develop a good picture of a teacher's classroom behavior patterns by collecting data from many unannounced "pop-in" visits. Although these visits are short (3-10 minutes in length), and individually they may not be significant, the data collected from several of them can reveal information about many teacher behaviors. Some of the behaviors on which a principal might wish to record data are:

- *Time on Task*—Do you often observe the teacher's class to be without work? Do you observe off-task behavior by the students or the teacher? Are activities such as distribution of materials and transitions between activities handled in an efficient, orderly manner?
- *Lesson Plan*—Is the teacher consistently following plans, or do you find the teacher going along, day by day, at random?
- *Question Formulation and Distribution*—Are questions posed and "pause time" used in such a way that all students must formulate answers, not knowing who will be called upon? Are responses solicited from all parts of the room? Are questions planned so that "guided discovery" can take place?
- *Note Taking*—Whenever the activity

Figure 3
Informal Observation Worksheet

19__—19__

Name of Evaluatee ____

	Dates and Times	Class	Students on task?	Students doing?	Teacher doing? Lesson plan?	Classroom demeanor	Comments
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							
10							
11							
12							
13							
14							

is appropriate, do you observe students taking notes? Does the teacher appear to expect the students to take notes?

- *Coaching*—Does the teacher respond to students in a positive, coaching manner, or is the teacher harsh and cold?
- *Enthusiasm*—Does the teacher present the subject in a positive, enthusiastic manner?
- *Classroom Control*—Are disruptions and off-task behaviors dealt with in an effective, business-like manner? Is the tone of the classroom comfortable but controlled?
- *Helping Attitude*—Does the teacher make sincere efforts to help students? Does the teacher adequately monitor the students' work and go to their work stations to help, or do the students have to come to the teacher?
- *Anticipatory Set*—Does the teacher begin the lesson with an anticipatory activity or a review? Is the stage set for the learning activities that will follow?
- *Physical Environment*—Is the classroom organized, orderly, neat, and physically safe? Does the physical setting of the classroom lend itself to a feeling of order?

It is best to avoid making unannounced visits at the beginning or end of the class period. A form such as that shown in Figure 3 can be used to record observation data.

This pop-in visit form, along with other data collection forms, narrative reports of formal observations, conference documentations and notes, and memos or letters are placed in the principal's working file. These provide data for further help sessions, for future inservice needs, and for decisions regarding possible probation (the only case in which they would ever be shared outside the teacher-principal relationship). All of this information, along with professional judgments made along the way, can be used for reference when completing the district evaluation form at the end of the school year.

Conclusion

An efficient plan for teacher supervision should be a priority for every principal. This plan should include:

- Yearly goal setting
- A formal observation process, including:
  - Pre-observation conference
  - Formal observation with objective data collection
  - Post-observation conference
- An informal observation process.

The real keys to improvement of teaching are utilization of resources for improvement and effective communication. The plan described here provides a setting in which direct communication related to teaching problems and suggestions for improvement can occur.

Tracing Your Roots

The Mormon Genealogical Library in Salt Lake City, Utah, the world's largest genealogical library, has information about two billion people kept on 1.5 million reels of microfilm. This would be the equivalent of six million 300-page published volumes.

Reprinted with permission from: NASSP The Practitioner, Vol. XV, No. 1, Sept. 1988.

THE PRACTITIONER

nassp

A Newsletter for the On-Line Administrator

Vol. XV, No. 1 (ISSN 0192-6160) September 1988

Strategies for Preserving Electives

Not since the nineteenth century has there been such a plethora of studies restating the ills of American education. As it was with earlier pivotal reports, legislative and other proprietary bodies reacted at the state and local level to prescribe the remedies for suspected educational maladies. A clear target for the healers was the secondary school curriculum in general, and the perceived "overabundance" of elective courses in particular.

In a remarkably short period of time, more courses have been mandated in English, mathematics, science, foreign language, history, and the social sciences. Courses in art, business education, consumer education and home economics, industrial arts and technology, music, and vocational education have become vulnerable.

Many educators are prey to this shift in focus. Teachers face reduced registrations in elective courses. Administrators and curriculum developers are concerned about meeting the needs of all students. State education department specialists in affected areas are looking for ways to compensate for the time no longer available in the secondary school schedule. A search is on for parallel opportunities for electives being crowded out of the schedule. Slowing the behemoth of increased academic requirements for promotion and graduation is viewed in some quarters as a futile endeavor, so constructive energies are being channelled into maintaining a comprehensive curricular program to include both required and elective courses.

Before examining some proven options, it is necessary to clarify some critical terms.

Some Definitions

It is not always easy to distinguish between a course that is required and one that is elective. A course in accounting may be a "required" course for a high school student pursuing a business education concentration, while the same offering may be an "elective" for another student with different goals. Similarly, a course may be an elective for one student or an option to meet a requirement for another. These options, which have some of the characteristics of electives, may also be vulnerable and will be addressed in the discussion below.

College admission policies may characterize foreign language courses as "required," but a student may choose one of many options: French, Spanish, German, Russian, etc. A student may be required to take a specific middle school or junior high school course in American History, but either of the options, "U.S. History from 1620 to 1850" or "American Issues in the Twentieth Century," would satisfy a high school's graduation requirement.

For the purpose of this Practitioner, a required course is one that must be taken by all students in order to meet graduation requirements. If all students in Grade 9 must take the course entitled "Composition and an Introduction to Literature," then that course is required. If, instead, the district's policy dictates that a student take at least one English course in Grade 9 from among several alternatives, then Grade 9 English is required and any of the available options becomes a means for satisfying the requirement. Generally, curricular options for meeting graduation requirements are not viewed exactly the same as electives in most secondary schools. Options tend to be maintained within the curriculum for certain students with greater academic ability or for those with average or below-average ability. It is not uncommon for a school to offer from two to five levels,(options) of Grade 9 English, each with a different title or designation, yet each satisfying a specific requirement.

The term elective is used in this Practitioner to characterize those courses in the secondary school curriculum that are not taken to satisfy specific graduation requirements. They may be selected to meet an overall requirement of 20 to 24 credits for graduation, but they are not in and of themselves required. Most high school departments tend to offer at least some electives as defined above. Most of the electives of concern to administrators and teachers are those in art, business, consumer/home economics, industrial arts, music, and certain vocational areas.

Sources of Pressure on Electives

Secondary school electives are under the most pressure from increased graduation requirements in English, mathematics, science, foreign language, history, and the social sciences. Earlier policies necessitated completion of fewer than 10 courses in these subjects, or no more than 12, but it is common to find as many as 14 courses in these subjects implicit in newly revised graduation policies. Less room is available in students' schedules as more courses are required, thus forcing out many elective choices.

Electives are besieged, however, from more than one quarter. The steady decline in secondary school enrollments in certain geographical areas has taken its toll. Some school districts have been more severely affected than others, but a drop in the number of students has reduced overall requests for particular electives and resulted in a decrease in the number of sections that can be offered. The number of single-section courses has increased. In schools where enrollments are declining precipitously, sign-ups for these singletons often fall below the minimum number set by boards of education for a course to be offered. These electives (and some options) are dropped because of insufficient registration.

Even when single-section electives meet minimum enrollment guidelines, they are sometimes jettisoned because of the enormous difficulty of scheduling large numbers of singletons and ensuring that the master schedule will accommodate all the required sections. At times, when actual course enrollments are checked by policymakers during the summer, electives are cancelled even though they were originally approved at the time of course registration.

Strategies for Preserving Electives

The history of American secondary education is replete with examples of creative solutions to perplexing problems. Strategies for maintaining a viable elective system in the contemporary secondary school curriculum do not have to be invented; previous ones need simply be rediscovered. The following list contains the most commonly employed strategies for ensuring the survival of elective courses.

1. Increase the number of instructional periods in the school day
2. Decrease the length of courses
3. Adjust the frequency of courses within the scheduling cycle
4. Add a special elective period at the beginning or end of the school day
5. Schedule electives in alternating patterns by year or by semester;
6. Adopt alternative cycles that add scheduling blocks but maintain the same number of daily periods
7. Merge related courses
8. Employ a program of independent study
9. Establish regional consortiums to enable students to take certain courses in nearby schools
10. Modify graduation requirements to include more subjects or curricular areas.

Supplementing these more traditional methods are two contemporary ones: employing interactive telecommunications, and offering evening and weekend programs for credit. A close look at each option follows.

Increase the Number of Instructional Periods

In their search for the perfect daily schedule, school administrators for decades have both increased and decreased the number of periods in the school day. Contemporary traditional schedules in the United States and

Canada range from as few as 4 periods per day to as many as 12 (current modular schedules have from 2 to three dozen periods). The most popular schedules today are those with 6, 7, or 8 periods per day.

To fit in additional mandated courses and to salvage as many electives as possible, many schools have added an additional period to the school day. Schools with six periods now have seven and those with seven now have eight. The extra period allows students to elect that special course that could not be accommodated before: band; chorus; computer education; a "second" foreign language; certain business courses; optional academic courses such as sociology, drama, psychology, and environmental science; more science; as well as vocational courses.

There are many ramifications to increasing the number of periods in the school day, so a broad-based school committee should explore this alternative. Such a decision may infringe on teacher contract provisions or impose on bus transportation, adequate supervision, the length of the school day, co-curricular activities, and availability of staff.

Decrease the Length of Courses

Many administrators ascribe to the "partial loaf" theory of curricular design. Electives that traditionally may have been a full year in length have been trimmed back to half-year (semester) courses. This strategy reduces the amount of content covered within courses, but it does allow two full-year electives, which would have required two distinct periods in the schedule, to be accommodated in just one. Another variation on this theme is a trimester system in which three electives can be scheduled in one period during the year. A throw-back to the '60s and '70s is a similar system in which electives meet one-fourth of the year (quarter courses). This option is not viewed as desirable from a curricular point of view.

In each of these cases, school administrators and faculty members must make difficult choices.

Adjust the Scheduling Cycle

One of the durable by-products of the era of flexible modular scheduling is the six-day cycle (Traverso, 1980). Versatile use of this model, especially in the middle school and junior high levels, has enabled school districts to offer courses to meet the demand in new curricular areas: computer literacy, micromputer keyboarding, QUEST, sex education focusing on AIDS, global education, etc.

This departure from the typical Monday through Friday five-day cycle places schools on six-day cycles that enable them to offer more electives. The number six has properties that relate well to scheduling needs. Six is divisible by itself, by three, by two, and by one. This flexibility allows the scheduler to accommodate physical education, health, science labs, and other courses that often meet less frequently and to incorporate more elective courses into the schedule.

Add an Extra Optional Period for Electives Only

The earlier suggestion to add an additional period to the existing school schedule also implied some possible disadvantages. In some schools, more may be lost than gained by adding an extra instructional period for all students. A simple and practical alternative consists of adding a period only for those students unable to get particular electives in the regular school schedule. Graduation or post-secondary admissions requirements make it difficult for some students to ever "fit in" an art or music course, or an extra course in foreign languages or the social sciences. An added "elective period" offers a solution to that problem without making many other demands on the smooth functioning of the school.

Elective periods can be planned either before the traditional start of the school day, at noon, or at the end of the usual last period. Decisions about what electives to offer during those times are made only after the need is established during the regular registration period. Districts adopting this alternative must also address the need for extra transportation runs and the modification of some teachers' schedules (later arrival to offset later departure and vice-versa).

Schedule Electives During Alternate Years or Semesters

Another example of the "partial-loaf" solution is spreading out electives over semesters or years. A decline in course registrations may preclude offering particular courses each year or, with partial-credit courses, every semester. An alternate year (semester) approach has the positive effect of compelling students, parents, and counselors to plan an individual program for several years instead of just annually.

Variations of this approach involve the offering of Latin I (Russian I) during even years and Latin II (Russian II) in odd years, or scheduling sociology in the first semester and psychology in the second. Similar arrangements can be worked out for courses in art, music, business, consumer/home economics, and industrial arts. These patterns mean that a year-long specialized course may be offered only during two of a student's four years in high school, but the possibility that electives or options may not be offered at all is less acceptable to many administrators.

Adopt Alternative Cycles

A long-term debate has existed in secondary schools about the appropriate length of the instructional period. Literature describing the earliest high schools refers to such alternatives as the extended period (one with a built-in block of time for supervised study), the regular period, and the dropped period within a scheduling cycle. The search for ideal length continues today.

The addition of a period to the school day described above has several noteworthy variations. If a high school chooses to add an additional period to the schedule, it can still maintain the same number of periods in the school day, which in turn preserves the length of the existing instructional period. Achieving these seemingly contradictory outcomes requires the elimination of one of the periods (or blocks) from the basic schedule each day. Since a period (or block) contains a subject class for each student, dropping a period means that at least for one day of the scheduling cycle the student will not have a class in English or mathematics, etc. Dropped classes affect numbers of required minutes per subject which, of course, must be reconciled with state, provincial, local, or archdiocesan regulations.

Specific examples of dropped-period and other alternative schedules may be found in the NASSP publication, Scheduling the Secondary School (Dempsey and Traverso, 1983).

Merge Related Courses

The most frequently cited examples of the merger of two separate but related courses are found in the foreign languages. Small high schools that wish to offer advanced levels of a particular foreign language have scheduled courses such as French IV and French V, only to find very small enrollments in each. A common, though not always popular solution, has been to merge both courses; i.e., to schedule them with the same teacher during the same period. This approach obviously requires a teacher to conduct two levels of a subject simultaneously by apportioning both content and time in a way familiar to elementary school teachers but not to most high school teachers.

Merging has also been used to offer different levels of journalism, art, music, dramatics, and computer courses.

Employ Independent Study

Independent study has been widely used for a variety of purposes. It is clearly one of the most flexible alternatives for maintaining certain electives.

Independent study can be a successful way to provide highly specialized electives to the smallest number of course registrants; one to several students can be accommodated in a program. Qualified students are allowed to work independent of the usual constraints of a course--common meeting time and specific location--under the supervision of a department head, director, or teacher. Commendable by-products of this approach are the development of self-motivation, personal responsibility, and accountability in the participating students.

Specific guidelines for independent study activities must be fashioned by each school system. Many facets must be considered, such as course integrity, the impact on cooperating teachers, the effect on other low-enrolled electives, and some limitation on the number of independent study electives a student may schedule.

Establish Regional Consortiums

The regionalization of school districts is a fact of American education. Some communities have been able to sustain an elementary school program from kindergarten to Grade 8, but have found it expedient to combine with other elementary districts to form a regional high school that serves several separate rural communities.

In the same way, high schools facing a decline in enrollment have elected to "regionalize" some of their courses. Students who take the usual English, mathematics, science, history, and social science courses in their own schools are transported to a nearby high school (or college/university) to obtain courses their schools cannot offer. Typical examples are Latin and other less-studied languages, Spanish V and similar advanced levels of foreign languages, photography, drama, calculus, advanced physics or chemistry, or particular vocational courses. Issues such as transfer of credit, grading, tuition, shared transportation costs, etc., must be worked out in advance.

An alternative to providing transportation for students on school-owned or contracted vehicles is to allow students or parents to drive and reimburse them for mileage. (Adequate insurance coverage must first be established.)

Modify Graduation Requirements To Include Electives

School officials wishing to protect the status of electives within the curriculum can utilize the same methods as those who responded to the various national reform reports and studies. Electives can be mandated (required for graduation) as well as academic courses. Lobbying efforts can be made on behalf of courses in the arts or in vocational education. As long as the mandate remains general (e.g., "a course in the arts"), a school could, for example, offer a variety of electives in art, music, and theater arts to satisfy the requirement(s).

Other Contemporary Approaches

Two other strategies for ensuring the continuation of electives are increasingly being used in contemporary secondary schools. One, the scheduling of courses during the evening and/or on weekends, may have a long history in this country's schools, but not much has been documented. The second option--the use of interactive television--is of recent origin.

The proliferation of continuing education programs has made it possible for high schools to assign some of their most difficult-to-schedule electives to after-school and weekend programs offered by their districts. Of course, administrators and teachers must establish minimum requirements and acceptable standards when electives are offered outside the traditional jurisdiction of the school. (The monitoring of after-school and weekend courses is substantially more difficult if arrangements are made with other school systems.)

The use of interactive television provides an alternative in direct contrast to transporting the student to another school building. Interactive television allows a secondary school to bring the instruction from another site to the students.

Costs associated with this strategy are prohibitive for most school districts. But by working with state departments of education, state supported regional education centers, and regional school collaboratives, school districts can make interactive television available to their own students. Sharing the costs of such an enterprise can bring otherwise difficult-to-offer electives to many more schools, and the outstanding teachers in an area can be shared.

The alternatives reviewed in this Practitioner are not theoretical. Developed and modified by practicing educators, these strategies are used in schools across the North American continent. Whether one or more options may be best for a particular school can only be decided after thorough study and broad-based participation by all who would be affected by the change. A few illustrations from Connecticut are included in the following section.

To Illustrate

Har-Bur Middle School
James Schmidt, Principal

Lyon Rd.
Burlington, Conn. 06013

Declining enrollment and an expanding curriculum were catalysts for scheduling modifications at Har-Bur Middle School. A six-day cycle was instituted and coupled with an added period in the school day, increasing the basic schedule to eight periods. Most of the unified arts courses were combined in a quarterly system or offered on a semester basis during three of the six days per cycle.

These special arrangements enable seventh and eighth graders to enroll in two-year programs in English, mathematics, science, social studies, and foreign language (Spanish or French), and one or two-year offerings in art, band, computer keyboarding, computer literacy, consumer/home economics, general music, health, industrial arts, physical education, the QUEST program for adolescents, and vocal music.

Teachers' Memorial Junior High School
Jerome Belair, Principal

15 Teachers Dr.
Norwich, Conn. 06360

Declining enrollment at Teachers' Memorial Junior High School (Grades 7 and 8) forced school administrators to devise a "quarterly" system to maintain the electives generally available to students. Both the practical and the fine arts have been teamed in a unified arts program. Grade 7 students now enroll in four and a half weeks of a family living course and comparable time in an industrial arts program within the usual nine-week grading period. The quarterly approach enables students in Grade 8 to select either industrial arts or consumer/home economics.

Another successful alternative has been the use of a club or activity period (seventh) to allow students to participate in courses not otherwise available to them.

Canton High School
Nicholas Salvatore, Principal
76 Symonds Ave.
Collinsville, Conn. 06022

Facing a precipitous enrollment drop in the early '80s, administrators at Canton High School fought for and obtained board of education support for small classes (average is 16). A workable format for both low-enrollment classes and a diversified elective program have been in use for a number of years.

- Electives are rotated. Botany, for example, is offered in "even" years while zoology is scheduled during the "odd" years.
- "Compatible" electives are scheduled during the same period with the same teacher. The art department at Canton High School, for example, combines Jewelry I and Jewelry II, Ceramics II and Sculpture.
- Certain students are designated independent study students. These advanced students, enrolled in specialized and advanced electives, are scheduled into the same classroom with introductory level courses. The students work independently with support from the assigned teacher.

Canton has also developed an innovative language arts laboratory. To address a declining school population and, at the same time, to maintain an experienced staff of teachers of English, the language arts laboratory seemed a practical and appealing option. The lab commenced operations in 1983. Teachers of English are assigned five classes per day; four in grade level assignments, and one as a language arts tutor.

The lab is designed primarily to help students with learning deficiencies, but it serves students of all ability levels in a variety of ways. Student weaknesses are addressed in the basic skill areas--study, reading, writing, and communication skills. Additionally, it helps students seeking assistance with research papers, college essays, SAT preparation, applications (colleges, job), listening skills, note taking and outlining, lab reports, and vocational reports.

Approximately 28 students who have been referred to the lab are served each day. IEPs are developed by the referring teacher and tutor, and student work is carefully monitored. No more than 6 students are scheduled per period, but drop-ins--students needing assistance for short term assignments--are encouraged.

Guilford High School
Carl Balestracci, Barbara Truex, Principals
Martha Wallace, Administrative Assistant

New England Rd.
Guilford, Conn. 06437

An excellent example of the unexpected consequences of modifying a traditional schedule exists at Guilford High School. The school expanded its basic seven-period schedule to one with eight periods, using a format so that one scheduling block would be dropped each day. The flexibility of an eighth scheduling block was realized while a regular seven-period day with longer periods was maintained.

Recent analysis of the option, however, has led to a revision for this coming school year. Guilford has decreasing enrollment and over-subscription in study halls. Teachers feel they are missing too much time with the dropped period (approximately 30 meetings per year) and are unable to complete the entire curriculum with their students.

The plan for this coming year is:

- Use an eight-period fixed schedule. Periods 1-4 will be 45 minutes in length; periods 5, 6, 7 will be 40 minutes; period 8 will be 45 minutes.
- Periods 5, 6, 7, the lunch periods, will act as "free time" reducers. Each student's schedule will have seven academic periods and one lunch period, but the master schedule will show eight periods for classes.
- Freshmen will have lunch during 5th period, sophomores during 6th period, juniors during 7th period, and seniors will fit in all lunches. This arrangement will allow Guilford to block schedule, with no freshmen classes 5th period, no sophomore classes 6th period, etc.
- Students can opt to take more classes in lieu of a lunch period (perhaps questionable nutritionally).
- Electives can fit in the period 5-7 lunch arrangement.

The school district psychologist endorses the idea of lunches by class because it gives the students an opportunity to socialize with their age group peers. The time can also be used for class meetings and class activities (there is no homeroom period).

Pomperaug Regional High School
John Voss, Principal

234 Judd Rd.
Southbury, Conn. 06488

Several elective-saving strategies are used at Pomperaug Regional High School. The school schedule has been broadened to an eight-period day, each period 43 minutes in length. Under the supervision of a separate director, a Unified Arts Department accommodates approximately 85 percent of the electives in which students are enrolled (courses in art, business, consumer/home economics, and industrial arts). A four-out-of-eight cycle enables students to enroll both in band and chorus which are scheduled during the same period.

Credit is given for post-school activities. Currently, 40 students are enrolled either in a stagecraft production activity or in an acting production course for one-half credit. These courses are subject to the regular grading requirements.

Portland High School
Donald Gates, Principal
95 High St.
Portland, Conn. 06480

Portland High School employs three separate methods to create opportunities in the elective arena. With fewer than 400 students, the high school uses independent study, a comprehensive career experience program, and membership in a regional consortium to enable students to enroll in particular electives as well as in required courses.

Cooperating teachers allow students to fulfill normal course requirements through an independent study approach. A Portland student is able to sign a very specific contract similar to the plan for special education students. All the details of course completion are spelled out during contract planning.

Another alternative in long use at Portland High School is the completion of specialized work for credit in the district's Comprehensive Career Experience Program. This opportunity enables students to work at community sites for career education while at the same time meeting certain state and local graduation requirements, such as in science.

A collaborative program with neighboring Cromwell High School and Coginchaug High School (part of Regional District #13) allows a student to enroll in courses only offered or available in the other two schools (e.g., Latin and graphic arts). Students are either transported to the other buildings on shuttle vehicles or are reimbursed for mileage should they drive themselves.

Wilton High School
Donald Holt, Principal
395 Danbury Rd.
Wilton, Conn. 06897

During a period when virtually all Connecticut high schools were reacting to new state initiatives, Wilton High School increased its graduation requirements from 19 to 22 credits. Local policy mandated the following distribution: English - 4 credits; mathematics - 3 credits; science - 2 credits; history and the social sciences - 3 credits; applied arts (business, consumer economics and industrial arts) - 1 credit; fine or performing arts - 1 credit.

A number of approaches have been used to minimize any adverse impact on the elective program. One is alternate-year programming of courses. Students are informed through the Program of Studies when particular courses will be offered so they can plan their four-year programs to incorporate the most appropriate electives. An identical strategy is used with alternate-semester course electives.

Another more dramatic and innovative technique is the use of interactive cable television. Offered in several cooperating schools, usually through the sponsorship of a state regional education center, interactive TV enables students at Wilton to participate in a course that is actually being taught in another high school some distance away. These courses are offered or scheduled to be offered both during and after school hours. Future plans include courses in the evenings and even on weekends. Participating schools must agree to adjust their daily schedules to coincide with others in the consortium.

Discussions are underway to provide a limited degree of inter-school transportation so that students may attend classes offered in a neighboring high school during the school day.

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This *Practitioner* was developed by Henry P. Traverso, director of instruction and personnel in Regional School District #10, Burlington-Harwinton, Conn. Traverso is co-author of the NASSP publication, *Scheduling the Secondary School*.

The Practitioner is a quarterly publication of the Research Department of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, Va. 22091 Telephone (703) 860-0200. Annual subscription rate of $4 is included in the dues of NASSP. Individual subscriptions are not available. Additional copies may be ordered: single copies $1.50 each; 2-10 copies, $1 each; 11-99 copies, 85 cents each; 100 or more copies, 75 cents each. Payment must accompany orders of $15 or less.

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The Rural Educator, Volume 8, Number 1,
Fall 1986.

RURAL PRINCIPAL: A CASE STUDY OF AN EFFECTIVE DISCIPLINARIAN

Marilynn Stanard

Introduction

Can a rural junior-senior high school develop well disciplined adolescents in a community known to be "rough-tough" having high rates of alcoholism, divorce, unemployment (23%) and social unrest? The answer appears to be YES according to a recent case study of student social behavior in a midwest rural junior-senior high school. Participants in the study cited that the key to positive student behavior was the leadership of its principal who insisted on a building-wide discipline program which stressed (1) managing student behavior in the classroom, (2) monitoring student behavior in the school building, and (3) maintaining a positive school climate. This article will describe the socio-economic background of the school community, the principal and his discipline program, and the perceptions of faculty, community, and students regarding these innovations.

Marilynn Stanard

Methodology

The study was conducted in Mount Vernon (pseudonym), a community of 6,000 people in the midwest and focused on the administrative behavior of Larry Powell (pseudonym) the principal of Mount Vernon School's 320 students.

The researcher employed ethnographic research methods in conducting the study and became a participant observer within the community and school during one academic year. She attended classes, assemblies, school board meetings and interviewed faculty, staff, community members and school board members. She also surveyed the faculty, students and parents seeking their views of school rules, classroom rules, and student behavior within the school.

Community

Economy

The school district was composed of three very different populations. There were wealthy city people who kept their $150,000+ homes for weekends entertaining or who lived in these homes but sent their children to boarding schools in neighboring states. There was the low to middle class population who composed the "stable" population of the school district and who had lived within it for generations. The third group of residents were poor "hill folk" who had migrated to the area.

According to the school psychologist and teacher consultant for the intermediate school district:

> "Many of these are hill people from the South. What is different in this school is that many students they see are students who are not 'sequentially put together.' Some students have been in four schools in one year."

(Field Notes, November 17)

The psychologist went on to describe the group of citizens who make up the intergenerational population of the district:

> "There appears to be a population of people in the district who are culturally limited. They have little vision of what could be. Economi-

> cally, these people may be quite poor."
>
> (Field Notes, November 12)

Social Problems

The annual police reports for the City of Mount Vernon indicated that the city had nine times as many arrests for driving under the influence of alcohol and six times as many arrests for traffic violations as their neighboring City of Fernwood which had a similar population and number of police officers. (Annual Report of Mount Vernon Police Department, and Annual Report of Fernwood Police Department).

The County mental health worker talked about alcoholic consumption in Mount Vernon:

> "When people have nothing to do they do what's different, out of boredom. Alcohol is the thing to do in Mount Vernon and is more readily available than drugs. Older teens supply it to younger teens. . . . Alcohol is available — the younger (under 21) meet on the railroad tracks with chains and baseball bats to fight — The police in the town come down hard on the kids. They do nothing to establish rapport. — The kids come to hate authority."
>
> (Field Notes, November 12)

The principal stated that the motto of the community is, "If it was good enough for Dad it's good enough for my kids." The school board president agreed with this perception and added that the populace believed that the school was top heavy in administration. "They remember what school was like in the 40s and expect it to be the same today." (Field Notes, January 18). The mental health worker added:

> "The parents of the community are products of the community and perpetuate the cycle. They don't take education seriously and reduce it to the narrowest of basics."
>
> (Field Notes, November 12)

The Principal

While the community appeared to foster negative conditions for student social behavior, the researcher observed that students were well behaved and few classroom disruptions occurred due to student misbehavior. Many faculty, staff and agency workers attributed this positive student social behavior to the instructional leadership of their principal, Larry Powell. According to a faculty member:

> "This is poor district. People come here and use the place as a stepping stone. Now Larry is different. He's a local person — dipped in green and gold — and he'll never leave. What's different about him is that he wants improvements and sees things that other people in town don't see as a result of the (university) classes he took."
>
> (Field Notes, November 17)

Larry Powell, a man in his late forties, is a former social studies teacher and basketball coach who completed his Master's degree and designed his program to include three courses in discipline. The focus of these particular courses was on works by Glasser and Dreikurs. Larry provided inservice training for the faculty in discipline and developed a suspension program for students as well. Field notes reflected these innovations:

> "Larry explained that two years ago he and a teacher had introduced *Glasser's Reality Therapy* into their school. After one and a half years the effects of the program faded and he wanted to introduce another program that was more specific. He wrote a successful grant application for *Assertive Discipline* training for the staff and invited other area schools to attend the workshops. Last August, the training took place and the *Assertive Discipline* was implemented in Mount Vernon schools. Teachers worked on a two week plan at a time and once a month the plan was reviewed.
>
> There were problems with the plan in that teachers didn't always follow the plan. When a major disruption occurred in the classroom the teacher sent a code word ENOUGH to the principal. Then

> both the principal and assistant principal would immediately come to the classroom to give the needed support to the teacher. This happened only a few times last year.
>
> The school has operated an in-house suspension program called the Learning Adjustment Center (LAC) to handle behavior problems. This year the program will be eliminated due to budget cuts. In its place teachers will be asked to hold detention after school every five weeks. The principal will also take a turn in detention supervision.
>
> Larry would like-to hold a review called Improvement Follow-Up using Lee Canter's tapes. The teachers will listen to these tapes in groups of 2 or 3."
>
> (Field Notes, June 23)

Although the principal had a "take charge" approach, he stated that he strived to stay involved with staff and to involve them in decision-making and innovations. He implemented a curriculum congress to oversee the problems within the curriculum and had a teacher advisory council to give him feedback on issues within the building. Larry believed in this "DELPHI" method of shared leadership, seeing change as coming from within the staff, and moving up to the administration in a team approach. He, however, always saw himself as the instructional leader in the school.

Discipline Program

Managing Student Behavior in the Classroom

Teachers were required to develop a discipline plan for their classrooms based on the principles derived from the inservice programs. While each teacher was permitted variation for classroom rules and consequences, Larry Powell required that a set of rules and consequences be developed. These rules were to be few in number and posted in the classroom. A copy of the rules was sent to each parent and the plan was placed on file in the office. Consequences for student behavior could be both positive and negative and positive rewards could be awarded to individual students or to the class as a whole. One teacher's rules and consequences which were representative of other faculty members included:

Rules	Consequence	Rewards
1. Respect the rights and property of others	1. Verbal warning	1. Time in library
2. Bring all materials to class	2. Detention	2. Money towards books
3. Raise your hand before speaking	3. Call parent	3. Choose seats
	4. Send to principal's office	

Monitoring Student Behavior in the School

The principal provided a strong monitoring system within the building, halls, and lunch room which involved both teachers and administrators. According to a faculty member:

> "You may not see drugs in the school but you'll see kids at the back of the school taking them. The principal really watches what goes on and if a few are gathered around a locker, he's right there. The teachers are also in the hall. They smile at the students and are really friendly, but their presence there makes a difference."
>
> (Field Notes, November 17)

Larry was indeed firm about teachers being in the halls before school started in the morning and between classes as well. He termed this being at their "Duty Stations." This was so important to Larry and the assistant principal, Pat, that they added a morning bell to alert teachers to be at their stations. The assistant principal shared:

> "Four years ago this school was a real mess. During lunch hour they would stuff a kid in the wastebasket. Just goofing around. But we don't want anyone to get hurt. We don't put up with that anymore."
>
> (Field Notes, September 22)

The school psychologist concurred, saying:

> "There is no ruckus in the junior or senior high school . . . The noise level is higher in the junior high school but you don't see students pushing and shoving as in some of the other schools we work in. It's the leadership. The principal is a fair type. He doesn't allow more freedom because he doesn't know what to expect . . .
>
> Larry is a take-charge principal. He doesn't delegate responsibility, yet he does things quickly himself. The former principal was a staid, polished kind of guy. There was a decline in attitude when he was the principal. Larry is dynamic and fights for the kids. He's provided stability for the school."
>
> (Field Notes, November 17)

Maintaining a Positive School Climate

The third characteristic of Larry's discipline program was developing and maintaining a positive school climate. This included maintaining a clean building free of graffiti and developing colorful murals and student commons areas. Student Council members were involved in designing the commons area and raised money for green plants and materials for the furniture which was constructed by the Industrial Arts classes. Art students painted brightly colored murals throughout the school. The school cook donated paint for murals in the lunch room and the Senior Class turned a musky cellar room into a decorative green and gold lunch area reflecting their school colors. Music filled the entry way as well and above the trophy case the words "We've Got Pride" were boldly stenciled.

Students appeared to value these innovations as costs related to school vandalism were less than $15 for the past three years. A faculty member commented on these building improvements:

> "The lounge is one of those improvements. It just picks you up when you walk into the building. There's music playing and it makes you feel like moving."
>
> (Field Notes, September 25)

In an interview, Larry shared his view of his leadership in maintaining a positive school climate:

> ". . . I want this to be a good place for kids. This office is the center for caring and energy. I tell the students that the door is always open and that I am the most unique principal they will ever find. The students often drop in to talk about issues that are not related to problems. Next year, I am going to have Pride Buttons made for the students to wear. This is the most unique school in the area and we're constantly improving. I want the students to show their pride. This place used to be a mess. Now I'm taking one section at a time and improving it. . ."
>
> (Field Notes, October 3)

Perceptions of Program Effectiveness

The faculty, parents, and students shared their views of school discipline and school life through surveys provided by the principal and researcher. The primary focus of these surveys was on the junior high since the thrust of school improvements was being made at this level.

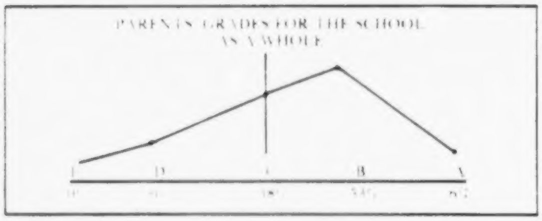
The Principal As Seen By His Staff

Larry asked the staff to rate his leadership anonymously on a survey he administered. The vast majority of the staff gave him high ratings in knowledge, organization, appearance, and enthusiasm. A few staff members saw him as emotional and not always fair. Larry said that these were probably correct perceptions, that indeed, he was very displeased with three staff members' performance and was often angry with them.

In staff interviews, the principal was reported to be a dynamic leader who was responsible for improved discipline within the building. He shared enforcement of this discipline with the assistant principal. Larry shared that he perceived himself as an instructional leader, as well, providing staff education in both affective and cognitive realms. His leadership was perceived favorably by most staff members who stated that the new discipline programs within the building had positive effects on the discipline within their classrooms as well.

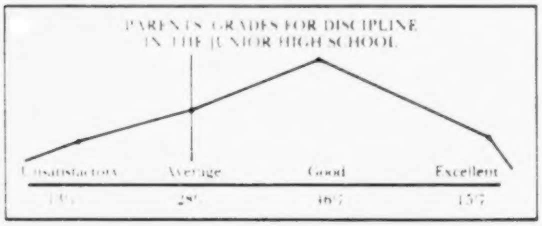
The School and Staff As Seen By Parents

On Parent Conference Day, 142 junior and senior high school parents gave similar responses when filling out Larry's questionnaire concerning the school and discipline within the junior high school. Overall, parents gave the school high grades citing many improvements. When grading the school from A-E, parents indicated that, in their opinion, the school was well above average. The following chart indicated the distribution of grades parents gave the school as a whole.



(Figure 1.1)

In rating discipline within the junior high school, the parents indicated this distribution of grades.



(Figure 1.2)

Again, over 85 percent of the parents who responded on the questionnaire believed that discipline was average or better in the junior high school and 61 percent described it as good to excellent. Additionally, 86 percent of the respondents graded the principal and assistant principal good to excellent, and 68% of the respondents gave similar ratings to the junior high school teachers.

While the school principal was excited and encouraged by this response to the questionnaire, he also stated that the school had been in an awful mess the last ten years or more, and so *any* improvement was seen as a big step to the staff and the parents. He stated, however, that he was pleased to have the support of the parents for the many programs that had occurred during his administration. While the survey reports the responses of parents who attended the open-house, there is no record of responses for those who did not attend. It should be noted that non-attending parents may not have been as knowledgeable and/or supportive of the innovations in the building.

In open-ended questionnaires, junior high school students were also asked to rate their school. The vast majority of the students responded that they liked their school. They described it in positive terms on the student survey, describing it as fair, O.K., good, great, fun, and neato. Two students used negative descriptors. What did they like about the schools? The top three responses were the teachers, students, and the school activities, especially sports. They also liked the principal, school spirit, and the fact they knew everyone due to the small size of their school. Additionally, students liked the fact that the school was clean with no writing on the walls and that there were no gangs. A few students additionally stated that they enjoyed attending particular classes and working on computers.

During student interviews, several students mentioned that some junior high school students were known to take drugs, but that they did not do them at school because of the principal and teachers. According to one student:

> "School is going pretty good. There are nice people here, nice teachers and friends. It's a pretty nice place. I was going to another school, but they sell drugs right in the hall there."

(Student Interview, November 6)

While most students in the survey group were happy with their school (80%+), they had suggestions for improvement as well. On the student survey they suggested that they'd like a longer lunch hour and there needed to be more sports and activities in the junior high school.

Summary of Observation

The observations, interviews, and surveys suggest that the effective leadership of the principal fostered prosocial behavior of the students despite negative influences stemming from the home. This leadership was characterized by the following traits:

(1) A take-charge approach.
(2) On-going inservice to faculty and staff in discipline theories and techniques for managing classroom behavior.
(3) Daily monitoring of student behavior by faculty and administrators.
(4) A caring attitude of faculty and administration toward students.
(5) An attractive and clean school building which fostered a positive school climate.
(6) Parent and teacher involvement in curriculum decisions and discipline policies.
(7) Student involvement in creating a positive school climate.

Conclusion

This study suggests that a building program which stresses (1) managing classroom behavior, (2) monitoring student behavior in the school, and (3) maintaining a positive school climate are reachable goals for practicing practitioners in spite of budget constraints and negative community conditions.

The study also suggests that students appreciate a safe, clean, and well-ordered school environment and that the school can represent "an oasis of stability" for students who come from an "unstable" community. These findings strongly support the notion that principals and teachers *can* make a difference in students' social behavior and overcome negative environmental conditions. This belief was stated in the opening address of Mount Vernon's principal to his staff:

> "We must generate a positive attitude. I have a theme for the year — to accomplish great things, we must not only act, but also dream, not only plan, but also *believe . . .*"

(Field Notes, August 31)

This study, therefore, concludes that within the walls of Mount Vernon School, an atmosphere of hope and caring appear to exist — a hope that students would learn and grow within a structured environment headed by dedicated professionals, who maintained a belief that the school would make a difference in the lives of its students and subsequently in the future society for which they were destined.

Marilynn Stanard is the Coordinator of Field Experiences at West Virginia University.

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Teacher Mentoring and Induction

The Mentor Teacher Casebook

Edited by Judith H. Shulman and Joel A. Colbert November 1987 • 104 pages • saddle bind • ISBN 0-86552-094-1 • $8.00.

This innovative resource for training new and experienced mentor teachers was copublished by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

In partnership with the Los Angeles Unified School District, the Far West Laboratory developed real-life vignettes for use in training mentor teachers. The vignettes are brief accounts about the challenges, successes, and failures experienced by twenty-two teachers as they attempted to assert their new mentoring roles.

The casebook is divided into three main chapters. The first introduces the process of mentoring and discusses how mentors provide assistance to novice teachers. Mentors describe how they made initial contacts with their assigned colleagues, how they began their work, and what the ground rules were for their work together.

The cases in the second chapter are particularly relevant to administrators. Some cases focus on the mentor-principal relationship, while others illustrate the need for matching mentors and colleagues by subject area and grade level. Still other cases deal with the fine line between confidential assistance and evaluation.

The third chapter examines both the positive and negative aspects of what it feels like to be promoted to the status of mentor teacher. Mentors tell of the rewards of helping other teachers and of their apprehensions in asserting their new status.

Each chapter contains (1) introductory comments about issues and questions raised by the vignettes; (2) the vignettes, grouped by themes; (3) discussion questions for each vignette; and (4) an annotated bibliography.

The Intern Teacher Casebook

Edited by Judith H. Shulman and Joel A. Colbert • July 1988 • 82 pages • saddle bind • ISBN 0-86552-095-X • $8.50.

Here is an excellent resource for beginning teachers, written by beginning teachers. The authors are novice secondary teachers in the Los Angeles Unified School District who tell, with candor rarely seen in print, what it is like to instruct teenagers in inner-city schools.

Like its companion, *The Mentor Teacher Casebook*, this volume consists of real-life vignettes of the beginning teachers' actual experiences, supplemented by the commentaries of new and experienced teachers and educational scholars. The result is a powerful training medium through which educators can learn from one another, across the boundaries of a school site.

Problems the authors describe are similar to those any novice in an urban school might face. Indeed the vignettes are grouped according to the kinds of situations all beginning teachers confront.

The first chapter deals with three types of classroom events: lessons in which the teacher taught a new concept or skill, but the students did not understand it; lessons in which the teacher lacked background in the subject area; and lessons that included nontraditional activities such as small groups or science laboratories.

In the second chapter, the trainees tell of their interactions with students who persistently acted out or refused to do work. Faced with some manipulative, foul-mouthed, and disorderly students, the newcomers used some strategies that worked and others that did not.

The third chapter examines the interns' relationships with mentor teachers and other experienced teachers who attempted to provide assistance. Their interventions varied from helpful to useless.

Commentary on some of the cases is provided by Lee Shulman of Stanford University, Jere Brophy of Michigan State University, and Pam Grossman of the University of Washington.

Copublishers of this casebook are the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education.

Teacher Competency and Dismissal

Managing the Incompetent Teacher

Edwin M. Bridges with the assistance of Barry Groves • 1984 • 81 pages • saddle bind • ISBN 0-86552-086-0 • $4.25.

Bridges presents an integrated organizational approach in which teacher dismissal becomes a logical extension of overall school policy. "Superintendents who follow this systematic approach should be able to upgrade the quality of their teaching staff, to increase the incidence of dismissal when teachers fail to improve, and to heighten the prospects of winning a dismissal case if it is contested by the teacher."

Since Bridges' hypothesis is that teacher incompetence is most effectively addressed at the policy-making level, he writes from the vantage point of the superintendent in proposing districtwide policies that will provide a sound legal and operational basis for evaluating teacher performance, proposing remediation measures, and, when necessary, enacting dismissal procedures.

Bridges devotes the majority of his book to a detailed discussion of the eight elements that make up his organizational approach:

1. Establish "excellence in teaching" as a high priority in the district.
2. Adopt and publish reasonable criteria for evaluating teachers.
3. Adopt sound procedures for determining whether teachers satisfy these criteria.
4. Provide unsatisfactory teachers with remediation and a reasonable time to improve.
5. Ensure that appraisers have the requisite competencies.
6. Provide appraisers with the resources needed to carry out their responsibilities.
7. Hold appraisers accountable for evaluating and dealing with incompetent teachers.
8. Provide incompetent teachers with a fair hearing prior to making the dismissal decision.

A concluding chapter, "Putting Theory into Practice," is a case study of one school district's teacher evaluation system.

Teacher Recruitment and Selection

How to Recruit, Select, Induct, and Retain the Very Best Teachers

Mary Cihak Jensen • 1987 • 58 pages • saddle bind • ISBN 0-86552-091-7 • $5.50.

If the quality of schools is largely determined by the quality of their teachers, then decisions and policies that govern the recruitment, selection, induction, and retention of teachers figure prominently in the effort to build excellent schools. In this book, Jensen recommends proven strategies for school administrators desiring to acquire and keep outstanding classroom teachers.

The chapter on recruiting gives examples of districts that are concentrating scarce resources on aggressive recruitment strategies. Some rural and inner-city districts are attracting applicants by promising bonuses, relocation assistance, and rent reductions.

Jensen's recommendations for improving teacher selection center on sound written policies, fair treatment of candidates, proper training of interviewers, consideration of a variety of information about candidates, and ongoing assessment of the selection process.

In the third chapter, after summarizing attrition rates and the rationale for supporting beginning teachers, Jensen focuses on new teachers' problems and presents three workable induction approaches: mentor teachers, increased supervision and training, and newcomer support groups.

School districts desiring to retain their best teachers need to consider the practical and symbolic message of wages, provide an unbureaucratic work environment, recognize teachers' accomplishments, and provide growth opportunities, as well as capable instructional leadership.

Instructional Leadership and School Improvement

Commissioned by the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, the Clearinghouse in 1987 completed a set of three synthesis papers and three annotated bibliographies on topics related to instructional leadership and school improvement.

SYNTHESIS PAPERS

Instructional Leadership: A Composite Working Model

James R. Weber, 62 pages, $8.00. This synthesis translates research findings on instructional leadership into a working model for practitioners—principals, assistant principals, teachers, and others. *Working model* means a cluster of areas of concern in instructional leadership that can be discussed as specific behaviors, that is, as a leader's responses to real situations in real schools.

Teacher Evaluation as a Strategy for Improving Instruction

James R. Weber, 65 pages, $10.00. A state-of-the-art survey, this paper begins with a review of the common practices of teacher evaluation and the alternative approaches developed since the 1960s. Then, the separate problems of the main participants in the process are analyzed, beginning with evaluators and then proceeding to teachers. Finally, attention turns to the mechanics of assessment and the recycling of results to stimulate teacher development.

From Isolation to Collaboration: Improving the Work Environment of Teaching

James J. Scott and Stuart C. Smith, 85 pages, $8.00. Using numerous examples of actual schools and teachers at work, this paper examines the work environment of teaching, focusing especially on the interactions among the adults in schools. Teacher collegiality and involvement in decision-making are two characteristics of "collaborative schools," whose norms encourage teachers to work together to improve their practice of teaching. The final chapter suggests ways for principals to promote collaborative norms and practices in their schools.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Corresponding in content to the above synthesis papers, these bibliographies feature extensive annotations of the most significant literature published, for the most part, since 1980.

- ***Models of Instructional Leadership***
  James R. Weber, 22 pages • $6.00.
- ***Teacher Evaluation***
  James R. Weber, 25 pages • $6.00.
- ***The Social and Organizational Context of Teaching*** James J. Scott, 31 pages • $6.00.

Staff Development

Effective Staff Development for Teachers: A Research-Based Model

Meredith D. Gall and Ronald S. Renchler with others • 1985 • 50 pages • perfect bind • ISBN 0-86552-089-5 • $4.75.

What practices distinguish effective staff development programs for teachers from those shown to be less effective? This monograph lists 27 dimensions for comparing effective inservice programs with less effective programs.

At the beginning of the book a table conveniently lists the 27 dimensions, the effective practices associated with each dimension, and the research basis for validating their effectiveness. The chapters that follow provide a full description of each dimension, a discussion of the effective practices, and a brief review of the research. The final chapter offers detailed case studies of three exemplary school district staff development programs.

Promoting the Professional Development of Teachers and Administrators

Glen D. Fielding and H. Del Schalock • 1985 • 77 pages • saddle bind • ISBN 0-86552-088-7 • $5.95.

This book highlights important findings and guidelines that have emerged from five years of research at the University of Oregon's Center for Educational Policy and Management (CEPM) concerning the continued professional development of school personnel. Discussion of research methodology is brief so that attention centers on broad concepts, major findings, and practical implications.

The final section of the book presents guidelines for choosing or designing staff development programs and for implementing them in schools. This part is intended for superintendents, principals, central office personnel, and others responsible for providing continued professional development programs.

Trends and Issues

This series highlights recent developments in research and practice in educational management.

Change in Public Education: A Technological Perspective

Thomas V. Gillman • January 1989 • 26 pages • saddle bind • $6.00.

Gillman assesses the past decade's efforts to improve education through the adoption, implementation, and integration of microcomputers into the instructional program at the elementary and secondary levels. His analysis "brings into relief some of the broader issues involved in educational development, since it has become clear that the impediments to change are not delimited to technological innovation but are representative of general structural deficiencies within the educational system."

Advocating an open system perspective on organizational change, Gillman encourages leaders and policy-makers to adopt such a perspective as a step toward bringing about structural reform of public education. He finds particular value in contingency theory (a derivative of open system theory), which "interprets administrative responsibility as the strategic confrontation of risk rather than its avoidance."

The paper is divided into three major parts: a metasynthesis of research findings; a discussion of these findings' implications for action, addressed primarily to educational planners and administrators; and a case study of Sacramento (California) City Unified School District's "Opportunity 21"—a strategic plan for leading that district's children into the twenty-first century and the age of information.

The Emergence of University-Based Education Policy Centers

Martha M. McCarthy and Gayle C. Hall • February 1989 • 22 pages • saddle bind • $6.00.

McCarthy and Hall examine the development and characteristics of university-based education policy centers, which provide state decision-makers with nonpartisan, credible data on policy options. "These centers," say the authors, "do not propose to write policies or lobby for particular positions, but rather to inform the policymaking process by identifying the merits of various policy options and assessing the impact of policy decisions."

Educational policy analysis is definitely an idea whose time has come. Since 1980 sixteen education policy centers have been established (or soon will be established) in fourteen states.

In the paper's first section, McCarthy and Hall describe "the context out of which education policy centers have emerged to link universities and policymakers." The devolution of federal support for education has placed increasing responsibility on the states. To address such complex issues as parental choice, school restructuring, and teacher empowerment, governors and legislators have to rely more on state policy analysis.

The paper's next section is devoted to a description of the centers. Through interviews and a survery of center directors, the authors obtained information about the centers' origins, mission statements, staffing patterns and funding sources, activities, research agendas, dissemination strategies, and methods of tracking the impact of their activities.

The third section focuses on the emergence of a formal network of the centers to facilitate their collaboration, and the final section outlines prospects of the centers succeeding in linking the policymaking and research communities.

Directory of Organizations

Directory of Organizations in Educational Management

Eighth Edition • Stuart C. Smith, compiler • 1989 • 45 pages • saddle bind • ISSN 0070-6035 • $6.50.

This Directory is the most comprehensive resource of its kind in the educational management field. It provides access to organizations that are sources of information on educational management at the elementary and secondary levels.

Listed in this edition are a total of 128 organizations that are engaged in research and development or that provide services to the educational management profession, such as consultation, information, exchange of ideas, or workshops. Agencies listed include federally funded research centers and laboratories, professional associations, policy research and analysis centers, school study councils, university research and service bureaus, and a variety of independent organizations. Organizations operating for a profit are excluded.

The listings give each agency's address, phone number, chief executive officer, purpose, subject areas, topics of available publications, periodicals, and services.

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ERIC
CRESS DIGEST

Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools December 1988

Economic Support for Education in Rural School Districts

Digest 4-89

THIS Digest synthesizes recent findings and enduring features that characterize the economic climate in which rural schools operate, and it reports traditional strategies used to create greater economic support for rural school districts. It aims to relate the issues of rural culture and community to the economic support of adequate services in rural schools.

Why has the degree of economic support been an ongoing concern of rural educators and of state policymakers?

The yardstick of adequacy in mass education—the expectation that all the children of all the citizens of a nation will attend school—is the expectation that schools everywhere will function in the same way to serve all students. This is a modern phenomenon closely associated with the steady economic growth that has characterized the development of cities, but many rural areas have not experienced growth during recent decades. Instead, they have been caught in cycles of economic boom and bust, or in a trend of steady decline. Under these circumstances, rural superintendents have consistently reported that adequate financial support for their districts is difficult to obtain.

Nonetheless, *rural areas* are the places in which mass education developed its early roots in the United States during the nineteenth century. Studies of contemporary nonmetropolitan communities have shown that they spend at least as high a proportion of their personal income on schools as metropolitan communities (e.g., Monk & Bliss, 1982). Incomes in rural areas, however, are low, and the net result of this traditional interest and contemporary effort does not combine to support adequately the work now expected of rural schools.

What state aid provisions have been suggested to increase the degree of economic support for rural schools?

Three types of state funding mechanisms are used to equalize economic support among all school districts in a state (Jess, 1980):

- high-level foundation programs, by which the state makes up the difference between local support and a prescribed minimum level;
- augmented foundation programs, which provide additional revenues based on a combination of district wealth and tax effort; and
- power equalization programs, which guarantee minimum revenues based on tax effort, but "recapture" revenues from districts with high local revenues.

According to Jess (1980), of the 25 states using any of these methods, disparities were reduced in 17, whereas disparities increased in seven. (They remained unchanged in one.) However, disparities were most consistently reduced in states that adopted power equalization programs. According to data reported by Wright (1981), 13 states adjusted funding to rural schools based on isolation and seven states made adjustments based on populaiton sparsity.

What is the effect of state and federal governments' revenue contributions on rural school districts?

Since the 1930s, state governments have played an increasingly large role in financing local schools. Since the 1950s, steady changes in state funding formulas have tried to take into account the special needs of some districts—for example, being small in size or serving many disadvantaged children. Overall, the effect of state efforts has been to lessen the fiscal discrepancies between rich and poor school districts.

The funds provided by the federal government to help at-risk students also help lessen discrepancies, but by no means close the remaining gap (Orland, 1988). Some reports, however, indicate that rural schools have not received a share of federal assistance proportional to either the numbers of students they serve or their needs (e.g., Gjelten, 1980).

Compounding this problem, the contributions of state governments and the federal government are often tied to new programs (designed by them) that may be particularly difficult for rural districts to implement. The new difficulties that confront rural school districts in operating some special education programs are a case in point.

The additional responsibilities imposed by state and federal mandates are intended to ensure that schools everywhere will provide similar programs in similar ways. Under these circumstances, additional aid may be welcomed as a mixed blessing by rural schools and communities. The funds benefit local economies, but require school staff to redouble their efforts to be efficient.

Why haven't all states adopted equalization measures?

Rural schools have been faulted for inefficiency because, even as their services were viewed as inadequate, their per- pupil expenditures were viewed as too high. A goal of the massive consolidations that occurred in this century was to eliminate this alleged rural inefficiency. Today, many rural educators believe that the push for efficiency has gone too far.

The emerging view is that rural and small schools are inherently more expensive to operate than other schools. Population sparsity, the appropriately small scale of rural schools, and the special needs of rural students and communities need to be accommodated with flexible regulation and ample economic support. Many rural educators hope that schooling will be recognized as an essential investment in an infrastructure that will support the kind of economic development that many rural communities have never experienced.

For the purpose of funding rural schools for such a mission, some observers believe that it will be necessary to develop a typology that accounts for the diversity among all school districts, a diversity most dramatically exhibited by rural school districts (Augenblick & Nachtigal, 1985). Such thinking may have influenced the passage in 1988 of a new school finance law in Colorado, which establishes a classification based on eight types of school districts. Much work needs to be done, however, to provide empirical justification for any particular typology.

How is economic support related to issues of rural culture and community?

The long history of interest by rural communities in their schools contrasts markedly with the more recent history of inadequate funding for rural schooling. When the expectations of rural schools were different, their funding was not perceived to be inadequate. State and federal initiatives have not—and perhaps cannot—resolve this dilemma, since their mandates, framed to apply to all schools, impose burdens that may be out of scale to the benefits they deliver to rural schools.

Such problems indicate a failure of policy to comprehend what rural schools, and the communities and cultures that stand behind them, are really like. Equalization of funding, or even a comparatively high level of funding for rural school districts, will not change the disparity of rural and urban cultures and economic activity.

Some educators (e.g., Wigginton, 1985) seek to cultivate a sense of community, based on students' direct involvement with the features of local culture and history. Wigginton's methods have been called "cultural journalism," because students develop publications about their involvement. As cultural journalists, they not only learn basic skills in a meaningful context, but they begin to understand and critique the world in which they live, according to Wigginton.

Other educators (e.g., Gatewood & DeLargy, 1985) believe that it is important for rural schools to take an active role in cultivating economic activity in rural communities, and new studies of "business incubation" have begun to appear (e.g., Weinberg, 1988). These programs provide seed-money and technical assistance to start businesses intended later to become self-supporting.

Still others stress the importance of understanding the national and global context in which rural schools and economies operate. According to them, the impoverishment of rural areas is a predictable, persistent consequence of the economic relationship between rural regions and centers of metropolitan finance and industry (e.g., Silver & DeYoung, 1986).

They suggest that rural citizens may legitimately view the schooling of their children as something apart from the agenda of mass education. Instead of regarding their children as the nation's "most precious natural resource," rural parents may want their children to learn fidelity to such rural traditions as neighborliness, hard work, self-reliance, and close relationship to the natural environment (e.g., Wigginton, 1985).

The common theme in these differing views is that the expectation that rural schools will deliver the same services in the same ways as other schools is bound to end in frustration, since the community will and the economic support necessary to meet the expectation may not exist. Hence, the issue of adequate economic support for education in rural districts depends on the purposes conceived for rural schools and on who conceives those purposes. Some rural teachers have taken a lead in demonstrating viable rural alternatives.

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Prepared by Craig Howley

This publication was prepared with funding from the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, under contract no. RI-88-062016. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement or the Department of Education.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools is operated by the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL), Inc. AEL serves as the Regional Educational Laboratory for Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. AEL is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Employer.

Collective Bargaining, Strikes, and Financial Costs in Public Education: A Comparative Review

Bruce S. Cooper

1982
Foreword by Anthony M. Cresswell
140 pages, 6 x 9 inches, Perfect bind
ERIC/CEM State-of-the-Knowledge Series
ISBN 0-86552-079-8

Collective bargaining in public education is a complex field of inquiry involving, for example, questions of bargaining, impasse, impasse resolution, striking, due process of law, legislation, power, and financial costs, not to mention the interactions between and among these topics.

In this critical-comparative essay, Bruce S. Cooper, associate professor of education at Fordham University, analyzes the growing body of social science literature on the causes, dynamics, and impact of public educator bargaining. Cooper focuses his inquiry on three central questions: What are the nature and causes of bargaining among public educators? What are the causes and outcomes of educator strikes and how can they be prevented? and What has been the impact of bargaining on the costs of education?

In a foreword to the book, Anthony M. Cresswell, associate professor of educational administration at the State University of New York at Albany, stated that Cooper has produced an "ambitious and controlled" review that "helps move the study of collective bargaining in schools forward and simultaneously closer to our colleagues in the rest of the labor field. That is a valuable contribution."

According to Cresswell, "the most important strength" of Cooper's work "is its scope." A major assumption of the author is that the study of educational labor relations can benefit from the analysis of research on the private and general public employment sectors. This comparative approach to the research literature makes the monograph of value to two different audiences. Scholars and practitioners in education can use it to expand their understanding of this complex subject. And readers from outside education can profit by discovering the relevance of collective bargaining in education to the whole of the public sector.

In the first of three major chapters, Cooper examines the various explanations that have been offered for the rise of collective bargaining among educators. He finds that all these reasons can be summarized under four headings: teachers' awareness of their personal and financial needs, centralizations of the employment structure, efforts by educator unions to organize members for bargaining, and state legislative support for educator bargaining.

Cooper next offers a summary and synthesis of opinions and research on teacher strikes, which now account for the largest percentage of work stoppages in public employment. The literature, he observes, centers around three issues: the arguments for and against teacher strikes, the impact of devices to stop and/or prevent public employee walkouts, and the major causes of strikes.

Teacher collective bargaining, it is widely believed, has added greatly to the expenses of public education.

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The Regional Lab Reports
on shared leadership

Newsletter of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands March 1989

Managing a Brave New Style

Site-based decision making or school-based management is an idea whose time has come. It has been endorsed by many reformers as a key to restructuring education, by community groups, by the major national administrator associations, the national teacher associations, and the school boards association.

Most of those calling for more decision making at the school building level also call for the involvement of more people in the process. Thus any move to decentralize decision making is likely to have an impact on leadership style within a school or district.

Shared leadership essentially means that all members in an organization are encouraged to participate in decisions that affect them. The team management concept has already become accepted by many principals and superintendents, who have "come to rely on other administrators' expertise" to solve the problems facing their schools (Hadderman).

Today, many advocate extending the team approach to include teachers. But "expanding the school leadership team involves more than creating a few new roles or providing extra help for the principal," Hadderman warns. "The idea is to reorganize schools and create a collaborative work mode to replace teacher isolation and break down management/labor barriers."

Necessary Ingredients

A number of reports have analyzed what elements are needed before school leaders can successfully adapt to a style of shared leadership (English; Mojkowski and Fleming). Among the most frequently mentioned are:

- *Solid support from the board and superintendent.* Power cannot be shared unless those with the most power are willing to delegate some.
- *Open communication lines.* An ability for all members of the team to communicate at all levels, both formally and informally, is imperative.
- *Training.* Training not only teaches personnel new procedures but also institutionalizes the new leadership style.
- *Clarity.* Administrators and others must be clear about which decisions are open to participation and which are not.
- *Trust.* There must be a strong commitment to building trust among all participants.

Shared Leadership in Action

During the past decade, many schools and projects—from individual schools to participants in city, state, or national initiatives—have successfully converted to participatory decision making. What follows is a small sample of some that take place within this Laboratory's region.

In New York City, for example, a Union of Federated Teachers sponsored pilot project called "Schools of Tomorrow Today" has staff from the New York City Teacher Centers Consortium working with school teams in a dozen sites. Each team includes teachers, the principal, other administrators, and sometimes parents and paraprofessionals. The goal of each schoolwide effort is to involve everyone in thinking about what the school ought to do to restructure to increase student learning.

Statewide Initiatives

In 1986 the Connecticut State Board of Education adopted a policy called the Common Core of Learning. Many of the schools working to implement this educational policy are using a shared decision-making process.

For example, in Glastonbury, committees of teachers, parents, school board members, community members, and administrators are engaged in an elementary curriculum and organizational renewal project that is examining changes for the district's six elementary schools (Anderson, Cox, and O'Connell).

And a Regional Laboratory team is beginning a project on shared leadership with New York teachers and administrators. Through conferences, materials, and other activities, the project will promote awareness about shared decision making and school restructuring.

National Initiatives

Three schools in our region are part of the National Education Association's Mastery in Learning Project (see p. 4). Now in its third year, this project is a pilot effort to develop a national network of schools that can model ways of

(continued next page)

Points to Ponder:

A Quick Quiz for School Leaders

- Are you making too many decisions? Are there others in your school or school system who could make some of them?
- What decisions should be the responsibility of building principals? Of teachers?
- How can you begin to change your district's decision-making process?
- How can parents and other community members assume some responsibility for decision making? When is it appropriate to involve the community?
- What would happen if you turned your school district's organizational chart upside down?
- How effective is your school's or district's communication program in fostering innovation? How can you make it more likely to do so?

[From the National School Public Relations Association, "Challenges for School Leaders Part I: Sharing Decision Making." Arlington, VA, ED-LINE, July 1988]

Management Style

(continued from page one)

empowering teachers to respond to national proposals for school-based reform.

Another national initiative, in which 21 schools representing every state in our region are taking part, is the Coalition of Essential Schools, founded by Ted Sizer at Brown University. Coalition schools use a wide variety of models and styles of leadership to reach their goal of increased student involvement in their own learning. But generally they reject the practice of top-down standardized solutions to problems of learning .

It is clear, even from the small sample above, that there are as many different approaches to shared leadership as there are schools and districts willing to try it. And it seems equally clear that as more decisions devolve to the individual school, shared decision making will become an important management tool for all members of a school community.

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Sharing Leadership Cements Change

While the principal's participation is critical in bringing about change in a school, by itself it is "not sufficient to pull off a major change effort." So concludes a technical report entitled "Getting the Principal off the Hotseat: Configuring Leadership and Support for School Improvement."

In schools attempting change, innovations are often doomed to failure because they are only partially institutionalized: that is, they are either person dependent (dependent on a dynamic individual), or institution dependent (they exist only on paper).

"Getting the Principal off the Hotseat" credits a phenomenon it calls "redundancy" with helping a school cement changes. Those schools with completely institutionalized innovations all had more than one person involved in carrying out a particular function. "Redundancy," the study concluded, "may be one of those 'extras' that make the difference between a real success and a partial one."

It was equally significant that leadership and support at these successful sites "were not provided in top-down fashion, but mutually...and to all participants." One source was teachers, who were given credit for "the difference between success and failure" at a number of successful schools. "[T]hey are a largely untapped source of leadership and support...[and] must be seen as critical partners in change, not its targets."

Also important was support and pressure from higher up: district-level support "in effect took pressure off principals: though they were often responsible for seeing that the innovation was properly implemented in their own buildings, they were not ultimately responsible" for the innovation.

Thus, the report concludes, principals are "one of several actors involved in significant change efforts," acting, not alone, but "in combination with district and other building personnel."

"Getting the Principal off the Hotseat," by P. Cox, L. French, and S. Loucks-Horsley (1987), was published by The Regional Laboratory.

From the Executive Director

THE POTENTIAL FOR CHANGE

We selected shared leadership as the focus of this issue of **The Regional Lab Reports** because we think it highly relevant to these times—especially in light of increasing calls for restructuring or redesigning education. And we have selected you to receive this issue of **The Regional Lab Reports** because you have made known to us your interest in leadership issues.

Like "restructuring," shared leadership seems to be a term that everyone is using, and that everyone uses to mean something different. In this newsletter we use it to mean that the members of an organization are encouraged to participate in decisions that affect them.

We are aware that the skills required to share leadership are not necessarily acquired through an educator's training or experience. And we recognize that sharing leadership in a school district presents many dilemmas (see p. 5). Yet we also know of several schools and districts in which educators are working together to learn how to share decision making (see p. 1 story for examples from our region).

For this issue of **The Regional Lab Reports,** we asked three educators to share their impressions of shared leadership in action (p. 4). The views they express give us a good picture of the process and remind us once again of the value of practical experience, especially when it is coupled with research and reflection.

For a brief look at what the research has told us about shared leadership, see our "Hotseat" findings (p. 2) and results of the recent *Carnegie Survey on Teacher Involvement in Decisionmaking* (p. 3).

We hope you find something of value in these pages, and we invite you to share your comments or experiences.

David P. Crandall

David P. Crandall, Ed. D.
Executive Director

Survey Finds Teachers Excluded

A recent Carnegie Foundation survey, the "most comprehensive ever conducted on the conditions of teaching," polled public school teachers in 50 states to ascertain the degree of teacher involvement in shaping classroom and school policy.

"The results," says Ernest Boyer in his introduction to the survey data, "are not encouraging....Teachers, we found, are not sufficiently involved in making critical decisions."

The survey was mailed in the spring of 1987 and was completed by 21,698 teachers, a 54.3% return rate. Responses were weighted to reflect the "true relative numbers of secondary and elementary teachers."

The survey found that most teachers help choose textbooks and shape curriculum but do not participate in "crucial" decisions about budget, staff, and school policy.

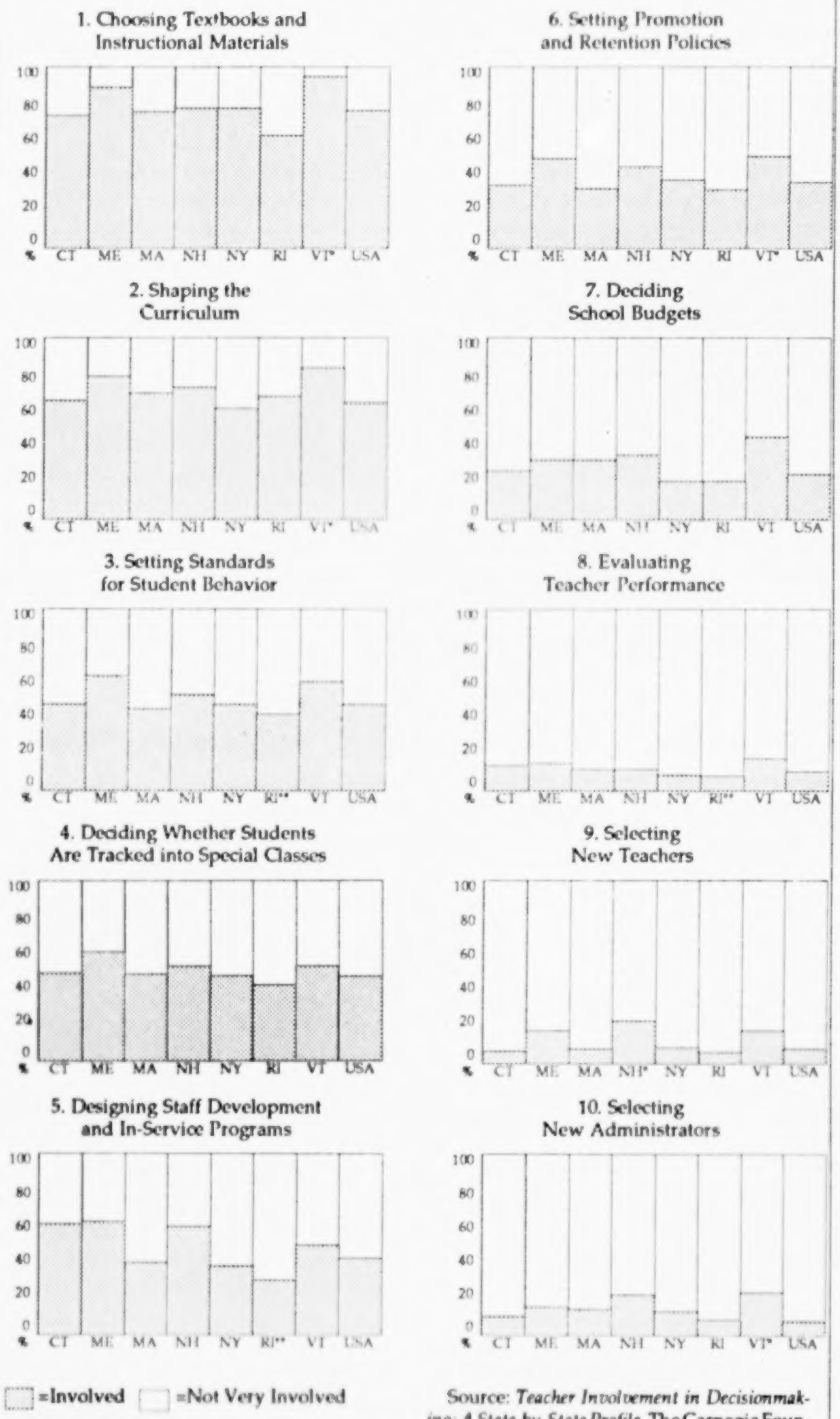
Boyer describes teachers as "front-row spectators in a reform movement in which the signals are being called by governors, legislators, state education officials—those who are far removed from the field of action." He concludes that teachers must be "full partners " in the reform process, with "more authority and a sense of their importance."

The accompanying graphs show the survey results for the Northeast states, as well as the national average for all teachers. (Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands were not included in the Carnegie survey.) Vermont teachers were consistently among the most involved in decision making and in several instances had the highest ranking in the whole nation.

Free Membership

Membership in The Regional Laboratory is free. Benefits include regular compilations of easy-to-read abstracts of the latest educational research, a special member newsletter, discounts on Lab products and events, and more. For information, contact Eileen Hanawalt at The Regional Laboratory.

Teacher Involvement in Decision Making



*Highest degree of involvement of all 50 states

**Lowest degree (or tied for lowest) of involvement of all 50 states

Source: *Teacher Involvement in Decisionmaking: A State-by-State Profile.* The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, September, 1988.

SHARED LEADERSHIP:

Educators Provide Personal Perspective On How It Works

In 1986 the National Education Association initiated a five-year leadership sharing project called Mastery in Learning (MIL). This school-based improvement effort seeks to change the way decisions are made in schools and to help teachers and administrators become professional collaborators. Of roughly 600 applicants to the project, 26 schools were selected; in the following articles, two teachers and a principal representing the MIL schools in the Northeast region present their views on the effect this new leadership style has had on them and their schools. These pieces are followed by a different perspective on shared leadership—that of a former superintendent.

All of the views expressed on these pages are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of The Regional Laboratory.

Keys Are Consensus And Compromise

by Clyde Collins

When the faculty of the Seneca Falls (New York) grades 6-12 joined the Mastery in Learning Project, a Steering Committee composed of teachers from each department and the principal was formed to coordinate the activities of the various task groups. With fourteen teachers and one administrator, the committee realized that majority rule was not the best method for decision making. The position of the principal was especially vulnerable, and the divisiveness of such a method was in direct conflict with our goal of collegiality and cooperation. Instead, the concerns of each department and of the administration needed to be weighed carefully and integrated into a final decision. We believed that a consensus approach to decision making would increase the sense of involvement, the stake, we all had in the success of proposed changes.

Working within this framework, the committee developed procedures for changes in scheduling, release time for teachers, and funding for conferences, substitutes, workshops, consultants, etc. Although the principal found it difficult to let go of the purse strings of the $5000 budget we were working with, we encountered no really major disagreements.

But we did face—and solve—problems: at one point we had to decide whether to fund a teacher's curriculum workshop if he then gained graduate credits that moved him up the pay scale. By the time the committee met and approved a compromise of partial funding, the principal had already had to act and had okayed complete funding out of our limited budget. As a result of this episode, the principal agreed to include the committee chair in any future decisions that needed immediate action.

Principals' Power Is Limited

A crucial aspect of shared leadership among teachers and principals is the realization that in many cases the power of principals is actually quite limited. The sharing of that power, therefore, does not necessarily enhance the power of teachers a great deal.

Let me give an example. The task group of parents, teachers, and principal developing the transition of our junior high (6-9) into a middle school decided, after lengthy research, that one more year was needed to prepare staff and facilities, and that the fifth grade should remain in the elementary schools. The school board and superintendent, however, in a decision based on the need to close buildings, opted not to wait a year.

In another example, the teachers and principal developed a schedule that would increase the enrollment of students in the business, technology, and home careers courses. The superintendent, believing that students interested in those courses should attend the vocational school, vetoed the proposed change. The teachers and principal, concerned about the lengthy bus ride to and lack of extracurricular activities at the vocational school, and armed with their research, convinced the school board to adopt their suggestions. However, this put the principal in the possibly precarious position of appearing to side with the teachers against his superintendent.

It is difficult to motivate teachers to be involved and put in time and effort on research only to be told that the recommended change is not acceptable, for apparently arbitrary reasons. After all, change is not something a lot of teachers look forward to unless they have a say in it. Keeping the status quo is more appealing and less frustrating.

It is essential, if any real shared leadership is to take place, that superintendents relinquish some of their veto power. Or we need to clarify those areas that are, or are not, subject to group action, and formulate, with the school board and superintendent, a policy that all can live with.

Clyde Collins teaches at Mynderse Academy (the public high school for Seneca Falls).

Shared Values Are Essential Ingredient

by Laura P. Krich

I am a middle school science teacher. I'm also in my second year as chair of the Steering Committee for our Mastery in Learning Project.

The shared leadership role I perform requires of me the following attributes: open and clear communication, role definition, vision, goals, determination with compromise, mutual respect, trust, valuing, belonging, caring, accepting, and supporting.

I feel that my building administrators and I share the values and goals implicit in this list but do not necessarily agree on the means with which we try to implement them. Sharing these values is the essential ingredient that makes it possible for me, as a member of the teaching staff, to stick my neck out and want to work toward the improvement of our whole school as a place for and about learning.

I remind myself frequently that I am more a facilitator for colleagues than a decision maker and that I serve as a staff leader at the whim of both administration and colleagues. If I am perceived as credible, I can be effective. Otherwise the leadership is in title only and could potentially do more harm than good to collegial relations.

Ultimately, I believe, there needs to be one person with the responsibility for the well being and functioning of the school as a community. Our principal must and does fill this role. His willingness to delegate tasks and share some of these responsibilities adds a new dimension to the working environment for all who avail themselves of this opportunity.

This form of leadership takes time—time that is often hard to carve out of an already full professional schedule. However, the rewards of being part of the process and seeing dreams become reality (however slowly) make the effort meaningful and worthwhile.

Laura P. Krich teaches at the Diamond Middle School in Lexington, Massachusetts.

How To Own Your Own School

by Robert G. Hasson, Jr.

Wells Junior High School has 340 students, 30 teachers, and two administrators. As part of the Mastery in Learning Project, we have implemented a new style of shared decision making, which the following example should illustrate.

We have a sixth-grade "team" that comprises roughly 10 teachers and two administrators. This team had been working with the 100 sixth grade students for about two months when, at a regular meeting, the discussion centered on the many behavioral difficulties of this group of students. The team decided that a special plan should be developed to help these students develop the skills necessary for success in school.

Students, parents, and staff all contributed to the development of this plan; the special education teachers who worked in the school and the Mastery in Learning site consultant provided advice as well. All of the information gathered was presented to the entire team at meetings, and the recommendations were eventually developed into a Comprehensive Behavior Plan.

The team, as a whole, developed the plan, implemented it, and continue to reflect on and revise it. It is owned by the teachers because they developed it. If the plan had been developed by an administrator and given to the team, this would not be the case.

Shared decision making is an area of great potential for schools that are committed to continuous reflection and renewal. Some of my early conclusions about shared decision making based on our experience at Wells Junior High include:

- It requires trust on the parts of all involved.
- It is a process, not an event, and it requires mountains of time. We must create more time during the school day for educators to talk to educators.
- When it is successful, the "spotlight" must be directed at the teachers.
- Conversely, failures must be embraced by administrators.
- There are "roadblocks" (e.g., district policy, traditions, state statutes), and they must be dealt with.
- Those involved in it should be, or become, risk takers. The school norm should be, "It's okay to try. Sometimes it won't work out. But many times it will!"
- It helps to be part of a network of schools (like the Mastery in Learning Project), to share experiences with other schools implementing changes.

Robert G. Hasson, Jr., is principal of the Wells Junior High School in Wells, Maine.

Dilemmas of Shared Leadership

by Paul Haley

Shared decision making has been hailed by some as a panacea for the ills of public schools. But when it is imposed on a system through regulation or collective bargaining, it may well result in more ills.

The imposition of such a leadership style (in itself an apparent contradiction in terms) creates a number of dilemmas worth pondering:

Collaborative vs. Adversarial. Shared decision making is a collegial, collaborative style in which the decision is determined by what best serves the client or product of the work. However, adversarial relationships characterize most schools that have been using top-down decision making and the labor union model of collective bargaining over the last 20 years.

As teachers participate in management decisions, the lines between labor and management become unclear.

Autonomy vs. Conformity. Allowing decisions to be made at a building level makes it possible for districtwide concerns to be overlooked when decisions are made. Thus, there is the risk of a lack of conformity (or equity) among schools in terms of schedules, staffing, resources, calendars, etc.

Labor vs. Management. As teachers become managers, by virtue of participating in management decisions, the lines between labor and management become unclear. This may result in teachers losing the right to unionize (as has already happened at Yeshiva University).

Time on Task vs. Time on Management. Activities that take professionals away from clients may diminish rather than enhance the quality of service to clients. Unfortunately, teachers' new roles often take time away from their traditional classroom role.

Paul Haley, a staff associate of The Regional Laboratory, is a former superintendent, most recently of the Cayuga-Onondaga BOCES, New York.

Lab Highlights

NORTHEAST COMMON MARKET PROJECT

On January 19, The Regional Laboratory sponsored a seminar in Windsor Locks, Connecticut, for the region's Commissioners of Education. Marc Tucker, president of the National Center on Education and the Economy, moderated the discussion on Teacher Induction in the Northeast.

The seminar aimed to find ways to collaborate regionally in assessing and supporting teachers. The program opened with overviews of teacher induction programs in two states, by Dr. Mary Robinson, of the Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services, and by Dr. Betty Sternberg and Dr. Pascal Forgione of the Connecticut State Department of Education. Other representatives shared their plans and problems, and panel discussions focused on impact, alternatives, feasibility, and costs/benefits of assessing and supporting teachers.

As a result of the meeting, department of education staff from each state will convene to share information on regional teacher-induction activities.

AT-RISK YOUTH SEMINARS

Last fall, Dr. Robert Slavin of the Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools presented the first in a series of seminars on at-risk youth, sponsored by The Regional Lab's At-Risk Youth Initiative. In subsequent seminars Dr. Nelson Colon, program director for the Puerto Rico Community Foundation, and Dr. James Beane, professor at the School of Education at St. Bonaventure University, spoke.

Upcoming speakers in this series include: Dr. Gary Wehlage, researcher at the Center for Research on Effective Secondary Schools at the University of Wisconsin, who will discuss high school dropout prevention, on April 14 in Manchester, NH; and Dr. Harriet Doss Willis, director of the Southwest Center for Equity at the Southwest Regional Laboratory in Los Alamitos, CA, who will speak on May 23 in Andover, MA, on what puts students at risk. For information on upcoming programs, contact Stephanie Wallace at The Regional Laboratory.

CONCERNS-BASED TOOLS FOR MANAGING CHANGE

The Regional Laboratory is offering a new service for organizations undergoing change called Concerns-Based Tools for Managing Change. It consists of overview sessions, workshops, consultation, simulation games, and implementation evaluations conducted by certified Regional Lab trainers. For more information, contact Don Horsley at the Regional Laboratory.

The Regional Lab Reports
March 1989

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A publication of
The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement
of the Northeast and Islands
David P. Crandall, Executive Director

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This publication is sponsored wholly or in part by the U. S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, under contract number 400-86-005. The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views of the department or any other agency of the U.S. government.

INSIDE

Getting Principals off the Hotseat
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ABOUT PRINCIPALS

Inducting Principals: How School Districts Help Beginners Succeed (October 1988). Outlines the problems new principals face, features several national or regional programs that assist beginning principals, and describes successful principal induction systems in four Oregon school districts. 60 pages.

Hiring Capable Principals: How School Districts Recruit, Groom, and Select the Best Candidates (May 1988). Describes successful strategies school districts use to prepare and select the most capable school leaders. 37 pages.

ABOUT TEACHERS

Induction Programs Support New Teachers and Strengthen Their Schools (September 1986). Reviews research about the beginning teacher and tells how two school districts are meeting the needs of these new professionals. 27 pages.

Recruiting and Selecting the Most Capable Teachers (May 1986). If current studies are correct, school districts are not hiring the most promising graduates of teacher training programs. This Bulletin explains why and recommends effective teacher selection strategies, illustrated by the practices of Oregon school districts. 22 pages.

Collegial Support for Professional Improvement: The Stanford Collegial Evaluation Program (March 1986). Describes a tested program in which pairs of teachers observe and confer with each other. The resulting data are used only for professional development purposes, not for personnel decisions. Barriers to collegiality are also discussed. 25 pages.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Instructional Leadership: Contexts and Challenges (November 1987). With a practical focus, this Bulletin reviews the contexts and domains of instructional leadership (including defining the school's mission, managing curriculum and instruction, and promoting a positive learning climate), the observation of teachers, and the sharing of leadership responsibilities. 44 pages.

Creating a School Context for Collegial Supervision: The Principal's Role as Contractor (November 1986). Explains the rationale for collegial supervision and details several steps principals can take to establish collegiality in their schools. Suggests the principal can serve a role similar to that of a building contractor, who functions as a team coordinator or facilitator. 32 pages.

It Is Time for Principals to Share the Responsibility for Instructional Leadership with Others (February 1986). Keith Acheson (with Stuart Smith) defines the roles of the instructional leader, argues that the principal alone cannot carry out this role, and points to several other personnel who can assist with instructional leadership. 21 pages.

The Principal's Role in Instructional Leadership (April 1985). Keith Acheson discusses the range of instructional strategies and the repertoire of skills needed for principals to successfully evaluate teachers. 25 pages.

Teacher Supervision: Helping Principals Apply the School and Classroom Effectiveness Findings (March 1983). Summarizes the effectiveness research, describes the results of a survey of Oregon principals, outlines what constitutes good supervision, and provides vignettes that show principals and teachers in action. 26 pages.

Instructional Leadership: Profile of a High School Principal (January 1983). Profiles a secondary school principal recognized by the Oregon Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development as one of Oregon's most effective instructional leaders. 32 pages.

Instructional Leadership: Profile of an Elementary School Principal (November 1982). Profiles an elementary school principal recognized by the Oregon Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development as one of Oregon's most effective instructional leaders. 27 pages.

STUDENT LEARNING

The Challenge of Classroom Discipline, by Talbot Bielefeldt (December 1988). Reviews six principles of effective classroom management and considers the development of a discipline system that can be applied to today's diverse student population. 25 pages.

Involving Parents in the Education of Their Children (November 1988). Reviews research findings on the benefits (higher academic achievement, positive attitudes toward school) that come when parents participate in their children's learning, and describes parental involvement programs at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. 42 pages.

The Developmental Approach to Kindergarten (April 1988). Describes in rich detail a classroom where the teacher carefully observes children in action with the purpose of assessing their skill level and their particular interests. The use of open-ended materials stimulates children's critical thinking, inventing, creativity, and sharing. 31 pages.

Developing Children's Creativity, Thinking, and Interests (March 1988). Professor Leonora Cohen proposes innovative ways of conceptualizing creativity, thinking, and interest development and, most significantly for practitioners, suggests many practical strategies for giving creativity, thinking, and interests their rightful place in the school's curriculum. 70 pages.

Student Self-Esteem and Academic Success (October 1987). Analyzes current research and theory to show that self-esteem appears to be an effect rather than a cause of academic achievement. Models of exemplary school programs in the area of student self-esteem are also highlighted. 37 pages.

Celebrating Students' Diversity Through Learning Styles (May 1987). Summarizes recent research on learning styles, including how some of the findings might enable teachers and administrators to more effectively meet the needs of at-risk students. 27 pages.

Aumsville School District's Readiness Program: Helping First Graders Succeed (February 1985). Aumsville places students at risk of retention in a year-long readiness program before they enter first grade. The screening process, the program's operation, and results are described. 38 pages.

Small-Group Cooperative Learning in the Classroom (March 1984). Describes in detail the benefits students gain through small-group learning, what research says about cooperative learning, and cooperative learning in practice. 30 pages.

AT-RISK STUDENTS

Student Stress and Suicide: How Schools Are Helping (February 1989). According to one estimate, an average of 1,000 young people attempt suicide every day. This Bulletin describes numerous depression and suicide prevention programs in schools across the country. 41 pages.

Career Information Motivates At-Risk Youth, by Bruce McKinlay and Deborah Perlmutter Bloch (January 1989). Summarizes literature and field research indicating that information about career options is important, not only in informing students about the opportunities of postsecondary education and work, but also in motivating at-risk youth. Presents three model programs. 46 pages.

Keeping Children in School: Springfield's Districtwide Prevention and Intervention Program for At-Risk Students (April 1987). Reviews current literature on at-risk students and then describes the development of Springfield School District's at-risk program, which has a strong preventative component at the elementary level as well as an emphasis on intervention in the later grades. 39 pages.

Inschool Suspension Programs for At-Risk Students (March 1987). Because out-of-school suspension is often ineffective in reducing student skipping and improving students' behavior at school, many school districts are developing a variety of inschool suspension programs. 28 pages.

Dropout Prevention Programs That Work (December 1985). Explains why students drop out and how to identify them, highlights ten characteristics of effective programs, and profiles programs in Colorado, Oregon, and California. 34 pages.

MANAGEMENT ISSUES

Building Coalitions for Support of Schools (September 1988). Many school districts are forming coalitions of citizens, businesses, and other groups in an effort to obtain practical support and goodwill for education. Describes the coalition-building process and gives examples of successful coalitions around the country. 33 pages.

The Management Team: Patterns for Success (February 1988). After describing the elements that make team management succeed, this Bulletin profiles several districts' management teams. 27 pages.

Long-Range Planning: School Districts Prepare for the Future (January 1988). Integrating published information with accounts of district practices in Oregon, this Bulletin serves as a source of ideas to districts in assessing their present condition, devising goals, and implementing them. 37 pages.

Collaborative Bargaining in Schools: Case Studies and Recommendations (September 1987). Focuses on the dynamics of replacing the traditional confrontational or adversarial approach to collective bargaining with a cooperative or collaborative one. Elements of collaborative bargaining are illustrated by case studies of two school districts. 27 pages.

Developing, Managing, and Gaining Public Support for the School District Budget (February 1987). Experts predict a shortage of qualified school business officials. Relying on published sources and interviews, the author explains the business manager's duties and the competencies needed for this position. 36 pages.

MISCELLANEOUS TOPICS

Developing Student Leaders: Exemplary School Activity Programs (December 1987). Outlines the rationale and function of student councils in the light of research and practice, describes five exemplary student councils, discusses student leadership classes and training workshops, and lists characteristics of outstanding councils. 35 pages.

Quality Circles (September 1984). Documents the origin of quality circles and how they work and reports on a project using quality circles in the Oregon City School District. 26 pages.

Schools against Drugs: The Impact Program at Newberg School District (January 1987). Looks at one district's attempt to implement an effective substance abuse prevention/ intervention program. 31 pages.

Ordering Information

ABOUT PRINCIPALS

_____ Inducting Principals: How School Districts Help Beginners Succeed.

_____ Hiring Capable Principals: How School Districts Recruit, Groom, and Select the Best Candidates

ABOUT TEACHERS

_____ Induction Programs Support New Teachers and Strengthen Their Schools

_____ Recruiting and Selecting the Most Capable Teachers

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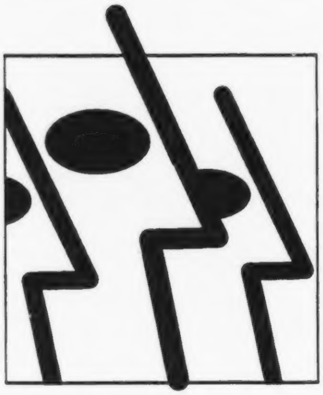
School Leadership

Handbook for Excellence

Edited by Stuart C. Smith and Philip K. Piele

Foreword by Edwin M. Bridges



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☐ This book is also, in Edwin M. Bridges' words, "highly readable." Each chapter is a simple yet detailed exposition of ideas and evidence on the topic, free of jargon and technical data.

About the Second Edition

Of the fifteen chapters in this second edition, four are new:

- "Training and Selecting School Leaders"
- "Leading the Instructional Program"
- "Leading the Instructional Staff"
- "Building Coalitions"

The other eleven chapters have been thoroughly revised and expanded to address new findings, issues, and changes in school practice. Several chapters that feature case studies of school or district practices rely on both written sources and interviews of practitioners. In such cases, followup interviews were conducted to bring the reports up to date. One chapter in the original volume, "Solving Problems," was omitted from this edition.

School Leadership

Handbook for Excellence

Suggests the knowledge, structure, and skills necessary for a leader to inspire all members of the school community to work together toward the goal of an excellent education for every student.

Of the fifteen chapters in this second edition, four are new, and the others have been revised and expanded to address new findings or issues that have come into prominence since the first edition went to press in 1981.

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School Leadership: Handbook for Excellence
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Foreword by Edwin M. Bridges
Second Edition • 1989 • xvi + 392 pages • Perfect (sew/wrap) binding • ISBN 0-86552-096-8

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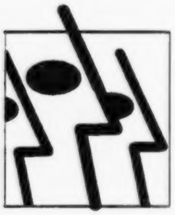

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